YOUTH AND VIOLENT EXTREMISM

ON SOCIAL MEDIA

MAPPING THE RESEARCH

YOUTH AND
VIOLENT EXTREMISM ON SOCIAL MEDIA:
MAPPING THE RESEARCH

Séraphin Alava
Divina Frau-Meigs
Ghayda Hassan

With the collaboration of
Hasna Hussein and Yuanyuan Wei

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Appendices

The following are online only

FOREWORD

The phenomenon often referred to as "incitement to radicalization towards violent extremism" (or "violent radicalization") has grown in recent years. This is mainly in relation to the Internet in general and social media in particular. This is despite it being immediately evident that other offline factors, including face-to-face communications, peer pressure and false information constitute more powerful forces, and are ignored at the peril of limiting our rights to freedom of expression if we focus only on the Internet.

In parallel to the increased attention to online "incitement to extremism and violence", attempts to prevent this phenomenon have created challenges for freedom of expression. These range from indiscriminate blocking, censorship over-reach (affecting both journalists and bloggers), and privacy intrusions – right through to the suppression or instrumentalisation of media at the expense of independent credibility).

It is timely therefore for us to recall key international human rights standards to serve as a benchmark for approaching violent extremism.

First, we can refer to the International Covenant of Civil and Political Rights (ICCPR), which foregrounds the protection of freedom of expression in Article 19.

The Covenant also recognizes that certain exceptional speech falls outside of free expression. Article 20 calls for prohibitions on "propaganda for war", and on "any advocacy of national, racial or religious hatred that constitutes incitement to discrimination, hostility or violence". In Article 19 of the ICCPR, certain expression may be limited by law – if necessary – for the purpose of protection of personal reputation, national security, public order, public health or public morals. All these provisions have a bearing on expression in relation to violent radicalization. General Comment No. 34 of the UN Human Rights Committee emphasizes that Article 20, on compulsory restrictions, has to be interpreted in the context of Article 19. Overall, it underlines that the norm is freedom, and that any restrictions should be exceptional and subject to necessity and proportionality.

Second, there is the guidance of the *Rabat Plan Plan of Action on the prohibition of advocacy of national, racial or religious hatred that constitutes incitement to discrimination, hostility or violence.*[1] The Rabat Plan was developed in 2012 by the UN's Office of the High Commissioner for Human Rights. It cautions us against illegitimate restrictions of speech based on purported implementation of ICCPR standards.

The Rabat Plan proposes a nuanced approach to assessing expressions of hatred in terms of whether they really incite harm. This approach suggests that restriction should only be considered in terms of an assessment of:

---

1   http://www.un.org/en/preventgenocide/adviser/pdf/Rabat_draft_outcome.pdf

(a) context of effect (the intent and likelihood),

(b) the status of the speaker,

(c) the specific content,

(d) the reach of the expression, and

(e) the actual imminent likelihood of resulting harm. This calls on us to use our heads, not our hearts, in reacting to the relationship of expression to the issue of violent radicalization.

Third, there is recognition by regional and UN rapporteurs that speech can be "offensive, shocking and disturbing", without necessarily constituting a threat to national security, or hatred that incites harms, or propaganda for war.

What all this means is that a delicate differentiation needs to be struck in regard to protecting freedom of expression – at the same time as identifying and responding appropriately to expressions that are put to the service of violent extremism.

This raises the issue of whether it is possible and meaningful to distinguish between two cases of expressions. On the one hand, there is expression that meets the ICCPR, the Rabat Plan and rapporteur tests – even if "offensive, shocking or disturbing" to some – and is thus not justifiably restricted. On the other, there is expression that takes extremism to the point of incitement to harm (discrimination, hostility and violence), endangering national security, or mobilising for war.

Conceptually, we should not assume a necessary link between these two different types of expressions, and we should not violate legitimate expression "just in case" or in the belief that it is part of an inevitable spectrum of causality that ends in incitement to harm. It is important here not to forget the insight of the Rabat Plan, which highlights the complexity of identifying and prioritizing what expression is actually dangerous and thus merits special attention.

Such cautions, however, are often casualties of political pressure to show quick responses to terror attacks. Social media companies are sometimes simplistically accused of responsibility, and called on to do more to prevent online radicalization of young people leading to violent extremism.

Yet, while this perspective blames the Internet for violent radicalization, it is not at all clear if this factor were simply removed (through Internet shutdowns, for example), this would put an end to the problem. Equally, removing patently dangerous online expression on its own would not guarantee a solution to a problem that evidently has underlying and deeper dimensions to it.

What is very clear, however, is that removing expressions can create even more problems – by leading to violations of legitimate expression, whether by state entities or Internet companies. This point has been strongly made by four Special Rapporteurs on freedom of expression,[2] and has also been underlined by many civil society actors.

---

2   http://www.ohchr.org/EN/NewsEvents/Pages/DisplayNews.aspx?NewsID=19915&LangID=E

What all this points to is the importance of seeking evidence about the actual role of the Internet in violent radicalization, and the equivalent importance of seeking evidence about the impact of Internet-related responses.

In an effort to bring scientific and academic findings into the picture, UNESCO commissioned this research. This exercise results from the ongoing efforts initiated in 2015, including by the Intergovernmental Information for All Programme (IFAP), when UNESCO led the first-ever international conference on 'Youth and the Internet: Fighting Radicalization and Extremism'[3].

This was followed in 2016 by the international conference 'Internet and the Radicalization of Youth: Preventing, Acting and Living Together', co-organized by UNESCO, IFAP and the Government of Québec, with the support of the Canadian Government.[4] The resulting 'Quebec's Call for Action' ('Appel de Québec') called upon the international community to take multidimensional action to combat violent extremism. This year, in May, UNESCO and IFAP also organized an international conference on "Youth and ICT: Towards Countering Violent Extremism in Cyberspace" in Beirut, Lebanon.

As background, it is relevant to note that in 2013, the UNESCO General Conference passed a resolution on Internet-related issues which encouraged international and interdisciplinary reflection and debate on the ethical challenges of emerging technologies and the information society. This was followed in 2015 by the conference CONNECTing the Dots that led to the decision 56 of the General Conference titled "CONNECTing the Dots: Options for Future Action: UNESCO's role in Internet-related issues"[5] which endorsed a range of options, including a call for human rights-based ethical reflection, research and public dialogue on the implications of new and emerging technologies and their potential societal impacts. It is on these foundations that this report was commissioned.

It can be added further that in October 2015, UNESCO's Executive Board adopted a decision on UNESCO's role in promoting education as a tool to prevent violent extremism.[6] This expressed concern about "violent extremism which can be conducive to terrorism, and the worldwide challenge of recruitment and radicalization to violent extremism of youth in media, in communities and in schools". It referred also to the UN's Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy adopted in 2006 by General Assembly resolution 60/288, which encouraged UNESCO to play a key role in regard to measures to address the conditions conducive to the spread of terrorism.

It is clear that the strategic solution to violent extremism lies, inter alia, in education. Recognizng the need for such long term solutions. This implies that in the short term, we must find policies of prevention and positive communication that protect expressions of identity while eschewing violent extremism. Relevant here is that in its 2015 decision, the UNESCO Executive Board highlighted the importance of UNESCO helping to prevent violent extremism through promotion of global citizenship education and related activities

---

3   http://en.unesco.org/youth-and-internet-fighting-radicalization-and-extremism
4   http://en.unesco.org/ConfQcUNESCO/home
5   38 GC/Decision 56; http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002433/243325e.pdf
6   Decision 46 adopted at the 197th session of UNESCO's Executive Board (197 EX/Decision 46) http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0023/002351/235180e.pdf

and programmes. In follow-up to the decision, the Director-General reported on progress to the Executive Board in August 2016 (see 200 EX/9), including reference to the production of this report.

The results of the study reveal that there is a scarcity of findings for enhancing our understanding about Internet and expressions of violent extremism. There is thus an absence of knowledge that could feed evidence-based policy for preventing and countering the phenomenon. This state of affairs may partly reflect the lag between the pursuit of academic research and the subsequent publishing. It certainly does reflect weaknesses in much of the scholarship to date.

In turn, this observation highlights the importance of addressing further research into these issues. However, it also points us back to the importance of the fundamental principles and values of the ICCPR, the Rabat Plan and the wisdom of the Rapporteurs.

It may take time until we get more credible and comprehensive, even if not definitive, research that can complement these international instruments and inform our policy development and practice. But at least we do not stand empty-handed in approaching the complexity of freedom of expression and online incitement to violent extremism.

Frank La Rue
Assistant Director-General
for Communication and Information

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

Does social media lead vulnerable individuals to resort to violence? Many people believe it does. And they respond with online censorship, surveillance and counter-speech. But what do we really know about the Internet as a cause, and what do we know about the impact of these reactions? All over the world, governments and Internet companies are making decisions on the basis of assumptions about the causes and remedies to violent attacks. The challenge is to have analysis and responses firmly grounded. The need is for a policy that is constructed on the basis of facts and evidence, and not founded on hunches – or driven by panic and fearmongering.

It is in this context that UNESCO has commissioned the study titled *Youth and Violent Extremism on Social Media – Mapping the Research*. This work provides a global mapping of research (mainly during 2012-16) about the assumed roles played by social media in violent radicalization processes, especially when they affect youth and women. The research responds to the belief that the Internet at large is an active vector for violent radicalization that facilitates the proliferation of violent extremist ideologies. Indeed, much research shows that protagonists are indeed heavily spread throughout the Internet. There is a growing body of knowledge about how terrorists use cyberspace. Less clear, however, is the *impact* of this use, and even more opaque is the extent to which *counter measures* are helping to promote peaceful alternatives. While Internet may play a facilitating role, it is not established that there is a causative link between it and radicalization towards extremism, violent radicalization, or the commission of actual acts of extremist violence.

Section 1 introduces the Report, its objectives and its structure. Thereafter, definitions are discussed in **Section 2**.

Sections 3, 4, and **5**. Based on a bibliometric and scientific study of research conducted in Europe, North America, Latin America, the Caribbean, the Arab world, parts of Africa and Asia on the links between the use of social media and the phenomena of radicalization, the Report analyzes more than 550 studies published in scientific literature and "grey literature", covering outputs in English (260), French (196) and Arabic (96). It shows that very little research has focused on the effective role of the use of social media in violent radicalization. Although many articles deal with electronic strategies and the use of the Internet and online social media for recruitment, there are very few empirical studies that describe and examine the real effects of these strategies on youth, and they rarely examine gender aspects.

Section 6. The Report examines the specificities of online prevention initiatives: counter/alternative narratives and media information literacy (MIL). Several formal and informal MIL initiatives have been implemented around the world according to MIL as a pedagogical practice with a specific set of skills that can respond to narratives of anger and revenge. These initiatives also aim at creating digital counter-narratives that reflect youth perceptions of itself and others, especially in terms of countering injustice, experiences of discrimination,

corruption and abuse by security forces. Other programs target youth directly, for their own empowerment primarily, on the premise that MIL can positively participate in the marginalization of violent extremism if not its containment.

Section 7. The current state of evidence on the link between Internet, social media and violent radicalization is very limited and still inconclusive, and particularly in the field of information and communication sciences as compared to other disciplines (history, sociology, psychology). Most of the reviewed studies remain predominantly descriptive and whenever empirical data is drawn, most studies are of low methodological quality, small-scale and rely on limited data sets. As a result, they fail to provide evidence on the drivers of interest to extremist sites, engagement in social media on these issues, the reasons for influence of content and the external and internal correlated factors, as well as the trajectories of youth who come to perpetrate violent acts. This being said, some evidence also suggests that Internet and social media may play a role in the violent radicalization process, mainly through the dissemination of information and propaganda, as well as the reinforcement, identification and engagement of a (self)-selected audience that is interested in radical and violent messages.

Sections 8. In this section, analysis of the effects of social media on the violent radicalization shows that there is a small amount of qualitative data on the subject, in contrast with the literature on the empowerment of young people on the secure use of the Internet. While there is an increase of the the 'grey' literature, the academic field is more under-researched and under-theorized. Moreover, several studies lack important methodological measures such as case studies, small data sets (small-scale corpus, limited data sets, instantaneous analyses). The exact roles and processes through which Internet and social media contribute to the process of radicalization still need to be explored. However, there is insufficient evidence to conclude that there is a causal link between extremist propaganda or recruitment on social networks and the violent radicalization of young people. The synthesis of evidence shows, at its best, that social media is an environment that facilitates violent radicalization, rather than driving it.

Section 9. This section offers recommendations that can be useful for various stakeholders. Violent radicalization of youth needs to be taken as a complex process, in which social media are not separated from other communication platforms, and from various offline factors. While reception of online radicalization efforts is still under-researched, the activities and uses of social media by terrorists are well known. Research confirms that many of these uses are meant to foster fear among Internet users in general, in addition to ambitions to recruit or incite individuals to join their cause and engage in violence. Attempts to prevent Internet dimensions of the violent radicalization of youth do not have proven efficacy, but on the other hand it is clear that they can damage online freedoms, especially freedom of expression, freedom of information, privacy and the right to association. More explicitly theorized and evidence-based results are needed concerning both radicalization processes online and the outcomes of online prevention and policy measures.

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Scope of the Report

The Internet offers significant possibilities for supporting the fulfillment of the 2030 Sustainable Development Agenda and advancing all human rights, including access to information, freedom of expression and privacy. Certain forms of Internet use and Internet-related effects may also lead to violations of these rights. UNESCO therefore seeks to promote awareness amongst all stakeholders, to foster debate and to find solutions towards mitigating adverse outcomes and amplify the widest dissemination of benefits and opportunities. Part of this effort is to commission this study titled *Youth and Violent Extremism on Social Media* to provide a global mapping of research into the assumed roles played by social media in radicalization processes across all the regions of the world.

Acts of terrorism worldwide have challenged our ability to understand the radicalization phenomenon and, most importantly, to generate the knowledge needed to make sense of such acts and to prevent them. Research has become a valid tool for understanding radicalization, constructing collective intelligence, and taking practical steps so as to enable sharing of expertise on this topic. One such area of knowledge-building is the investigation of the role of Internet, and social media in particular, in violent radicalization processes and terrorism.

Over the past 10 years, prominent researchers in the fields of the humanities and the social sciences, such as technology, education, political science, psychology and sociology, have been investigating the dynamics of digital social networks and, to a larger extent, the digital universe (games, videos, blogs, forums). Several scholars have been specifically examining the link between the social media and the growing role of personal, political, ethnic, religious, and violent radicalization of youth in sectarian or political groups.

Many claim that the Internet is increasingly an active vector for violent radicalization that facilitates the proliferation of extremist ideologies in low cost, fast, decentralized, and globally connected networks (Awan, 2012; Hawdon, 2012). Terrorist groups are now heavily spread throughout the Internet and use this cyberspace in different ways, from online recruitment to the broadcasting of violent content. This report focuses on reviewing studies investigating the processes of digital radicalization, the potential effects of social media on the radicalization of young people leading to violent extremism, and the role of alternative counter-narratives to prevent violent extremism.

In this report, the term "cyberspace" is used to denote the Internet, as a network of networks, and "social media" as a social network that may combine various Internet platforms and applications to exchange and publish online. All facets of social media are considered, that

is, the online production of radical (political, social, religious) resources or content, the presence of terrorist or radicalized groups within the social networks, and the participation of young people in radical conversations. The main objective is to synthesize evidence on how social media may, or may not, act as vectors of violent extremist discourses and may, or may not, constitute more or less controlled spaces for exchange that can be favorable to violent extremist forms of engagement. The main corpus of analysis is composed of scientific articles covering all facets of cyberspace in relation to social networks and their related digital environment. When academic empirical studies were not available, grey literature and reports were included.

The objective of this report is to:

➥ Conduct a systematic review of research on the roles played by Internet and the social media in violent radicalization;

➥ Assess the current state of research scholarship on the direct or indirect effects of social media on violent radicalization;

➥ Conduct a review of the research into the outcomes of online prevention and intervention initiatives on violent radicalization;

➥ Formulate recommendations for future research and prevention of violent radicalization through the Internet and social media;

With the help of a multidisciplinary and multicultural team, the report uses a multi-level approach to capture the complexity of the phenomenon by:

➥ Taking into consideration the vulnerability factors of youth, such as identity struggles, behavioural problems, delinquency, and quest for significance;

➥ Examining the role of the Internet and social media with regards to exposure to violence and indoctrination methods as well as dissemination of information;

➥ Exploring how extremist recruiters use available narratives and discourses to attract and bond with young people.

The report applies the review methodology developed by the Campbell Collaboration for systematic reviews (see Appendix 1 for an extensive description of the search and synthesis methdology). The systematic review includes assessment of quantitative and qualitative empirical data on correlations between the repeated uses of social networks and engagement in a process of violent radicalization. The literature that links hate speech, "fake-news" and radicalization discourses and the levels of influence (direct influence and indirect reciprocal influences) of these discourses is also taken into account. The synthesis of evidence focuses on consensus and disagreement points on the links between the processes of violent radicalization and social media in order to better inform international policy-makers, the scientific community and other interested parties.

1.2   Structure of the Report

This review encompasses the diverse forms of violent radicalization phenomena, which aim to use violence as a *modus operandi* of their claims, communication and action strategies. Radicalization is seen as a process of rupture within society. Adherence to ideas leading to violent extremism may then lead individuals down the path to participation in acts of violence. Because the concept of violent radicalization is still far from being unanimous, Section 2 of this report is dedicated to define the concept as it is used in the systematic review searches. Sections 3, 4, and 5 synthesize the evidence on the role of Internet and social media in violent radicalization of youth in four large geographical areas where scientific literature is available, notably North America and Europe, Latin America and the Caribbean, Asia, Africa, and the Arab world. Section 6 is dedicated to the synthesis of research on online prevention intiatives, namely Media and Internet Literacy (MIL) programs. Section 7 summarizes key findings of the review and sections 8 and 9 address main conclusions, limitations, future research and prevention recommendations. Appendix 1 provides a detailed description of the systematic review methods and Appendix 2 provides an exhaustive global mapping of research centers currently working on the role of social media in violent radicalization processes in all regions. Appendix 3 provides a table of the research centers and institutions included in this review. Appendix 4 provides Québec's Call for Action. Appendixes 5 to 9 (which are online only) include bibliographies.

2

DEFINITIONS

Because the terms of "radicalization", "terrorism" and "war against terrorism" are at the heart of a communication polemic in mainstream media as much as in social media, it is necessary to reflect upon the use of these terms by challenging the assumptions they combine and the semantic specifications associated with them (Rousseau et al., 2016). Denoted words and their attendant labeling are not isolated from the social sphere they represent. In fact, they are indicative of powerful political tools that justify and mobilize action. Therefore, definitions relate to highly politicized semantic fields, which fluctuate with shifts in political priorities.

This review takes into account the critical approaches of the sociology of radicalization (Guibet & Lafaye, 2016), which highlights the political, cultural and social contradictions of the very notion of radicalism. Radicalism has been used inappropriately and interchangeably with notions such as fundamentalism (which usually refers to a religious approach), indoctrination (which refers to a process of mental control), Jihad, extremism and terrorism, among others. Because the term radicalization is overused and caught in various rhetorical trappings, it is essential to draw upon the origin of this term, which is related to the word "root", the fundamental origins of an idea, or a cause. Radicalization, in its epistemological sense, thus refers to anchoring oneself in one's knowledge, opinions, values and beliefs to determine one's behavior. In this meaning of the word, revolutionary political theories like Marxism, or social movements like the suffragettes, or Gandhi's fight against British colonization and revolutionary scientific theories such as Einstein's theory of relativity can be qualified as radical ideas. Furthermore, any social change such as radical feminism, the end of slavery or colonization and the like is grounded in radicalized positions that form and support social transformations. In this sense, they are "extremist" when viewed from the vantage point of a *status quo*. Many of these theories and movements have significantly contributed to the improvement of societies and individual freedoms and rights, with or without the use of violence. As Moscovici (1976) has showed, such movements can sometimes be viewed as the source of innovation and social change. It is thus essential to distinguish the radicalization of ideas from the radicalization of actions, and to also distinguish radicalization toward extremism, violent radicalization (when extremism becomes violent), and from acts of extremist violence including terrorism (as a particular form and logic of violence).

According to reports and policies such as those originating in the European Union and the United Nations, the term radicalization is referred to as a process that leads to extremism and possibly terrorism (Commission of the EU Parliament, 15 March 2015). Violent extremism seems to bridge the gap to terrorism. The latter while not defined by the UN is understood in this study as describing the use of real or symbolic violence against civilians for a political purpose (Doucet, 2005). It consists of the use of violence to instill fear, destabilize and then

destroy a disputed existing order (European Union Terrorism Situation and Trend Report, 2016).

Currently, there is no consensual definition of radicalization. Authors refer to it in different ways. In line with its multi-disciplinary and multilevel approach, this report draws from three complementary definitions of radicalization. The first definition emanates from Farhad Khosrokhavar (2014) who defines the concept of "radicalization" at a micro-level, with a focus on the individual person. Violent radicalization is analyzed as an individual engagement and process of indoctrination into violent actions, with special attention to emotional and cognitive processes of influence. According to Khosrokhavar, radicalization is a process by which an individual or a group comes to take up a violent form of action. It is directly linked to an extremist ideology that contests the established order at the political, social or cultural level. Khosrokhavar's definition helps examine the potential power of the Internet acculturation that leads to the creation of an *oppositional hero*'s identity among vulnerable individuals. Khosrokhavar's main focus is on Islamist religious radicalization in the West. Therefore, such an approach is limited in terms of analyzing other forms of radicalization, and in other contexts. It further suggests that radicalization is inherently linked to violence, whereas radicalization may be a process towards extremes that do not embrace or catalyse acts of violence.

The second definition is derived from the German sociologist, Wilhelm Heitmeyer (1989; 2002) who examined processes generating right wing extremism. He developed a theory of social disintegration taking into account the different levels of an individual's ecosystem and their interrelation. This is in reference to the socio-psychological arguments of the Frankfurt School whereby violent radicalization is viewed as the product of a combination of individual experiences and social conditions that generate social grievances. According to Heitmeyer (1989), "Right-wing extremist orientation is characterized by elements or alternatives against social models defined theoretically, but practically is often based on unrealized promises of political democracy, individual possibilities of freedom and equality" (Heitmeyer, 1989, p. 164-76). Thus, at a macro level, extreme right wing violent radicalization can be considered as a form of war or guerrilla warfare, challenging long-established power relations and endangering civil liberties and security. This approach is limited in regard to its suggestion that radicalization entails acts of violence.

Based on the ecosystematic framework, a third definition is used by Schmid (2013) who defines radicalization as an individual or collective process. The term emerges from the friction of intercommunity relations and is associated with a situation of political polarization. The practices of dialogue, compromise and tolerance between different players are abandoned, by at least one of the parties, in favor of an escalation of confrontational and violent tactics. This definition also encompasses the often-overlooked serious impact of rupture in democratic dialogue and in citizenship engagement. It has the advantage of describing how ideological, indoctrinating, collective discourses are constructed where "others" are portrayed as radically different from "us". The latter being then construed as abused, under threat, victims in need to be defended, while the "other" is dehumanized (e.g. constructed as evil; e.g. the category of "Kafir" used by Islamist radicalization or "pigs, animals" used by right wing extremists in reference to different groups). Consequently, the act justifies exclusion, persecution and possible violence. At the same time, it points

to radicalization as a dynamic two-way process, rather an *'Us vs. Them'* rhetoric or a unilaterally assigned label to one of the protagonists. Studies show that those processes, well known offline, increase online de-individuation and group polarization effects (Spears & Postmes, 2015, Reicher et al., 1995); affective mobilization (Ernst-Vintila & Macovei, 2016); group loyalty (Sageman, 2011/2016), opinion-based communities/bubbles (McGarty et al., 2014) and confirmation biases. For these reasons, Schmid's systemic comprehension is valuable to the development of efficient and primary prevention initiatives. In this study, such initiatives are referred to as "preventing violent extremism" (PVE) and the "countering violent extremism" (CVE).

Those aforementioned definitions allow us to conceptualise violent radicalization as the dynamic and complementary coexistence of at least three levels observable both in the real world and in cyberspace:

➡ The individual person's search for fundamental meaning, origin and return to a root ideology;

➡ The individual as part of a group's adoption of a violent form of expansion of root ideologies and related oppositionist objectives;

➡ The polarization of the social space and the collective construction of a threatened ideal "us" against "them", where the others are dehumanized by a process of scapegoating.

In relation to the particular characteristics of the social media, those levels are even more visible through the different aspects of radicalization within the media including the dissemination of propaganda by radical groups, representation of violent identity in the media and social media, as well as, mutual polarization and "othering" (co-radicalization hypothesis, Pratt, 2015; Reicher & Haslam, 2016).

In terms of theoretical assessment of the literature, this review is sensitive to assumptions about radicalization processes via Internet-mediated communications, and other offline interactions and experiences. The review notes that the sociology of media points out that social media have increasingly become vehicles of internal and external social and political realities, that they also contribute to representations based on different agendas that vary in space and time (Schmid, 2013). Two major sociological schools theorize the reception of Internet and social media. The critical effects-based school claims that Internet and social media have become highly powerful means of communication that currently produce a total disorganization effect on all communication tools and processes. Social media are seen as active levers for hate speech, conspiracy theories and the rise of extremism through de-sensitization that leads to accepting the use of violence. The socio-psychological uses-based school sheds doubts on the structuring effects of social media by empirically identifying only indirect and limited effects. In this perspective, the role of social media in violent radicalization and extremism constitutes the translation of real offline social ruptures.

In this Report, radicalization in the literature is assessed in terms of a conceptual distinction between a process of radicalization, a process of violent radicalization (legitimazing the adoption of violence), and acts of violence, even if these are sometimes conflated in the studies that are examined.

SOCIAL MEDIA IN THE RADICALIZATION OF YOUTH LEADING TO VIOLENT EXTREMISM IN EUROPE, NORTH AMERICA, LATIN-AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

3

The following section synthesizes the current state of research in Europe, North America, Latin America and the Caribbean. The four geographical areas are combined due to the commonalities and convergences in the academic and grey literature. However, this trend must not overshadow the specificities of historical, political, economic and social contexts that breed, or protect from, violent radicalization in each of the specific societies that are constituted within this grouping.

Importantly, it should be kept in mind very clearly that for *digital natives*, the Internet is a "natural" extension of the off-line society as it is known by other generations. Indeed, Postmes & Brunsting (2002) brought early empirical evidence to the fact that online action is often considered an equivalent alternative to offline action (by activists and non activists alike), and also argued that the web can promote identity formation and help build communities.

Very little research has addressed the effective role of the use of social media in violent radicalization. Although a large number of articles deal with terrorists' e-strategies and uses of Internet and social media online for recruitment, there are very few empirical studies that describe and examine the actual effects of these strategies on youth (Ernst-Vintila, *in preparation*, 2017) and rarely do they examine gender-related aspects.

3.1 A recent research field

It is difficult to disentangle Internet, the web and social media literature before 2005, the update of web-based social networks. Despite more focused research by the year 2010, social media were still subsumed in "the network" metaphor (Goede, 2012), which was used to encompass the entire Internet, including Web applications and derived platforms. The metaphor of the network carries with it a certain amount of values, such as transborder connectivity, and a platform that renders the world actionable and amenable to intervention. But it is also increasingly recognized as also being a technology risk, which carries with it a sense of danger with the rapid spread of viruses, rumors and hatred. At the same time, as far as radicalization, extremism, and terrorism are concerned, the network is not only

part of the problem, but also part of the solution. The Internet is not in and of itself a lever for radicalization, violent or otherwise, but the current uses of the social media and the issues of regulation of information online merit research as to whether they are effectively used as a contributor to the radicalization of ideas and of development of violent extremist mindsets, and possible actions, especially among young men and young women.

Most of the research in the regions discussed here between 2005 and 2011 tends to focus on the positive uses of the Internet and social media by youth, even under the EU "safer internet" program in 1999. A few studies examine the negative uses by adults (mostly in relation to pedophilia, pornography and cyber-related violence or cyber-related harassment; see Livingstone et al., 2011). Individual strategies rather than collective ones are also the main focus of attention, and very few studies address the extremist (political or religious) use of cyberspace. During that earlier period, terrorist groups are not yet clearly identified as political groups but rather as a section of the online sub-cultures. This may have led to an under-estimation of the speed of their transformation and their increased networking power.

Since 2012, partly due to the 2011 Arab Spring and the convening power of social media, some research has pointed to the similarity of social media and terror groups in their function as networks in that they are both decentralized, ubiquitous, and mobile (Conway 2007; Schils & Laffineur, 2013). With Internet and the social media, the public shifts from passive to active agents who "gather information on their own, rather than wait for news organizations to filter and then deliver it" (Seib, 2006, p. 78). The socialization extends to the production and sharing of information within such online networks. The features of the Internet have led to a transformation of extremist groups' tactics. These groups have adapted to the dematerialized potential of the web. There is a consensus among researchers that some key features of the Internet differentiate it from traditional media. Internet offers information in bigger volume and higher speed, as well as in diverse formats such as all kinds especially video for visual communication and emotion, interactivity two-way communication, horizontal links, and the like (Nag, 2011). It is also decentralized and open to individual control (Tsfati & Weimann, 2002; Weimann, 2006). It offers the possibility to research or post information in degrees of anonymity, and under little government surveillance or control especially where countries with high levels of free speech protection have little censorship of Internet content. Furthermore, information can be posted on local networks while targeting a global audience across time and space, reaching anywhere and anytime (Conway, 2007; Schils & Laffineur, 2013). The social media platforms that have these characteristics have offered significant advantages to extremist groups that may otherwise have stayed marginal in terms of communication means.

3.2   Research on the specificities of social media

Recent research has been looking into violent extremists' increasing use of social networking sites, such as Facebook and Twitter with additional inroads into YouTube – all of which are used for propaganda (the web as "theatre of terror", Weimann, 2008), recruitment (Weimann, 2006), and fundraising. The literature still mostly consists of grey literature descriptive reports. Some interesting contributions include the report titled *#Greenbirds:*

Measuring Importance and Influence in Syrian Foreign Fighter Networks that documents the use of social media for decentralized recruitment and targeting of young audiences (ICSR, 2013). The report, *Trending Jihad*, by the Quilliam Foundation (2014) is also of interest as it breaks down each major social network and analyses its features, compares and contrasts them in their respective roles, as well as contrasts them with websites and chat rooms. It is important to note that the aforementioned reports focus solely on Islamist violent radicalization and do not examine the spectrum of all other violent radicalization forms and groups. The information they provide is thus not necessarily generalizable to other groups.

The sub-sections that follow present a selection of descriptive information available on the main social media platforms. There are several other channels that are used by diverse violent extremist groups, but no study or report was found tackling these platforms. Another limit is that few of the reviewed are based on extensive empiraical research. This means there is no definitive evidence on the direct link between the specificities of social media and violent radicalization outcomes on youth in the regions covered here.

3.2.1 Chatrooms

Chatrooms can be embedded within most Internet-based media. Reports that have looked into the use of chatrooms by violent extremist groups, describe these as the space where at-risk youth without previous exposure would be likely to come across radicalizing religious narratives (Quilliam, 2014; Shah, 2012). This goes in line with Sageman's (2004) emphasis on the role of chatrooms and forums, based on his distinction between websites as passive sources of news and chat rooms as active sources of interaction. According to Sageman, networking is facilitated by discussion forums because they develop communication among followers of the same ideas (experiences, ideas, values), reinforce interpersonal relationships and provide information about actions (tactics, objectives, tutorials). Chatrooms can also include spaces where extremist people share information such as photos, videos, guides, and manuals (Sageman, 2008). That being said, the role of such for a in actual planning and coordination of attacks is not evident within the literature surveyed by this study.

3.2.2 Facebook

Although many extremist groups are ideologically and strategically anti-Facebook, some maintain a strong presence on this platform either directly or through supporters (Quilliam, 2014). Facebook however, does not seem to be used for direct recruitment or planning, possibly because it has mechanisms of tracking and can link users with real places and specific times. Instead, Facebook at least in the past appears to have been more often used by extremists as a decentralized center for the distribution of information and videos or a way to find like-minded supporters and show support rather than direct recruitment (Quilliam, 2014; Shah, 2012). This may be on the possibility that young sympathizers can share information and images and create Facebook groups in a decentralized way.

3.2.3 Twitter

Micro-blogging sites like Twitter present more advantages for extremist groups because traceability of the identity and the source of the tweets are harder to achieve, thus increasing the communication potential for recruiters (Crettiez, 2011; Quilliam, 2014; Menkhaus, 2014). Analyses of Twitter feeds generated by Islamist violent extremist groups show that they are mostly used for engaging with the opposition and the authorities, in what appear to be tweetclashes that mobilize the two sides, and also used for provocation (Quilliam, 2014). In addition, through Twitter, extremists can easily comment publicly on international events or personalities, in several languages, thus enabling the activists to be vocal and timely when mounting campaigns (Quilliam, 2014).

3.2.4 YouTube and other video platforms

YouTube remains the video-sharing platform of choice despite the increased competition from other platforms, such as Dailymotion, Vimeo, and the like. It has the advantage of being difficult to trace the identity of people posting content, while offering the possibility for users to generate comments and share contents (Quilliam, 2014). The three major reasons for generating video messages by Islamist violent extremists are praising martyrs, promoting suicide bombing and delivering propaganda in favor of extremist ideology (Conway & McInerney 2008; Quilliam, 2014). The Quilliam Report (2014) publishes a comprehensive analysis of the content of Islamist violent extremist videos published on YouTube. It describes how the content targets a sympathetic audience, and focuses on education and the praising of martyrs, with less overt violent content such as suicide bombings. This might be an implicit strategy to subvert the extremist labeling that might lead to government blocking or censoring, or lead YouTube to act proactively and remove content that is in breach of its user guidelines (Quilliam, 2014; Vergani & Zuev, 2015).

Several researchers have conducted content analyses of YouTube and Facebook extremist discourses and video contents to identify the production features most used, including their *modus operandi* and intended effects (Salem, Reid & Chen, 2008; Tomomi, 2013). Studies that have focused on the rhetorical strategy of extremist groups show the multi-faceted use of online resources by extremist groups. That is, they produce "hypermedia seduction" via the use of visual motifs that are familiar to young people online (Ganor et al., 2007; Fighel, 2007; Raffaello, 2011; Vergani, 2014); and they provide content in several languages, mostly Arabic, English and French using subtitles or audio dubbing, to increase the recruitment capacity of youth across nations (Weimann, 2010). These videos provide rich media messaging that combines nonverbal cues and vivid images of events that can evoke psychological and emotional responses as well as violent reactions (Salem, Reid & Chen, 2008). Terrorists capture their attacks on video and disseminate them though the Internet, communicating an image of effectiveness and success. Such videos in turn are used to mobilize and recruit members and sympathizers. Videos also serve as authentication and archive, as they preserve live footage of actual damage and they validate terrorist performance acts.

YouTube has responded to concerns by creating a technology that "focuses on the slice of ISIS' audience that is most susceptible to its messaging, and redirects them towards curated YouTube videos debunking ISIS recruiting them". This tool was "developed from interviews

with ISIS defectors, respects users' privacy and can be deployed to tackle other types of violent recruiting discourses online".[7] It is does not seem there has yet been academic research into this initiative.

3.2.5   Social media self-regulatory measures

Very little research evaluates the impact of self-regulation measures by social networks against violent extremists (Council of Europe, 2012; Gagliardone et al., 2015). In fact, the need for this research is on the rise due to governments' pressure, as they require social networks and Internet providers to act on information related to alleged terrorists. All major social media platforms have their own statements of rights and responsibilities or Terms of Service whereby they explicitly position themselves in relation to "hate speech" (which is variously defined) and gratuitous violence, discriminatory and unlawful content. They often reserve the right to take down or refuse to distribute such content, while pledging to not disclose user information so as to respect their privacy (except in cases of harm done to others or legitimate requests by the authorities). Over time, several social media providers have created a group of reviewers who examine each complaint sent to them. An analysis of their yearly transparency reports shows the increase in requests from governments rather than from individual users (Organization for Security and Co-operation in Europe, 2013).

There have been recent developments within the industry (bilaterally and through organizations like the Global Network Initiative) to share best practices. One of these enables sharing of digital "fingerprints" dubbed (hashes) which identify "violent terrorist imagery or terrorist recruitment videos or images" so that offending content removed from one company's services can be easily blocked from reappearing elsewhere – at least within the four co-operating entities of Facebook, Microsoft, Twitter and YouTube.[8]

3.2.6   Social media and virtual identity

Research on violent radicalization in Europe, North and Latin America and the Caribbean highlights the importance of collective identities for group mobilization (Hunt & Benford, 2004; Melucci, 1995; Taylor & Whittier, 1992). This makes social media an attractive target for the dissemination of extremist narratives and actions. More precisely, extremist groups target collective identities, through relational and emotional bonds, in order to achieve endorsement of their values. Researchers have referred to processes such as "identity fusion" (Swann & Buhrmester, 2015), whereby an individual personal identity is gradually overshadowed by radicalized group identity. This leads to a total endorsement of the narrative proposed by the extremist group. The process is even faster with those young people who are "lone actors" who are already struggling with needs for belonging (Gill et al., 2014; Malthaner & Lindekilde, 2015) and who may construct a fantasy of belonging to terrorist groups.

This process of identity fusion can also be explained online via the Social Identity and De-individuation Effect or SIDE model (Spears & Lea, 2003; Reicher, Spears, & Postmes, 1995),

---

7   See the website https://redirectmethod.org/
8   https://newsroom.fb.com/news/2016/12/partnering-to-help-curb-spread-of-online-terrorist-content/

whereby the coexistence in the digital world of plural virtual identities may facilitate a process of de-individuation — understood as a separation from one's individuated identity — and the adoption of a new group identity. This process is also facilitated by the manipulation of young people's need for "extimacy" (virtual meetings, virtual dating) to develop new social networks and new affiliations through intimate virtual encounters and group discussions. This identification process involves an affective component. Indeed, researchers identified and even measured a "sense of virtual community" (Blanchard & Markus, 2002; Blanchard, 2007) and a "sense of presence" which increases in emotional environments (Riva et al., 2007), and which matters more to people than their "objective" (offline) social network itself (Bruchon-Schweitzer, 2014). When it comes to action, this complex process has significant effects: in online actions the influence of affective affiliation with the ingroup may be even more pronounced than offline (Postmes & Brunsting, 2002).

In this vein, an expanding literature shows that social networks that are characterized by strong emotional and community connections exploit youth vulnerability (Busher, 2015). They are thus often considered as an intermediate outcome for violent radicalization among young people, although research has not demonstrated an inevitable teleology.

3.2.7   Other areas of the social media scape: videogames

Videogames can be placed in a similar category as social media because they increasingly have their own forums, chatrooms and microblogging tools. Videogames, widely used by young people, are under-researched in relation to extremism and violent radicalization. There is mostly anecdotal evidence that ISIS supporters have proposed modified versions of some games to spread propaganda (Grand Theft Auto 5) formats that allow players act as terrorists attacking Westerners (ARMA III) and provide for hijacking of images and titles such as Call of Duty to allude to a notion of jihad.

Selepack (2010) used qualitative textual analysis of hate-based videogames found on right-wing religious supremacist groups' websites to explore the extent to which they advocate violence. The results show that most hate groups were portrayed positively, and that videogames promoted extreme violence towards people represented as Black or Jewish people. The games were often modified versions of classic videogames in which the original enemies were replaced with religious, racial and/or ethnic minorities. Their main purpose is to indoctrinate players with white supremacist ideology and allow those who already hold racist ideologies to practice aggressive scripts toward minorities online, which may later be acted upon offline (Selepak, 2010). It should be noted that some experimental social psychologists show that cumulative violent videogames can increase hostile expectations and aggressive behavior (Hasan, Bègue, Scharkow & Bushman, 2013).

3.2.8   Other social communications

It is important to keep in mind that social media with relatively open public interfaces are increasingly existing alongside social messaging to closed social groups, sometimes also covered by encryption (at least in the transit of the communications even if not encrypted at the moment of creation and moment of consumption). Therefore, it would be a mistake to take a social-media-centric point of view, and overlook the likelihood that various aspects

of radicalization may be occurring in private small group communications, as well as one-to-one messaging or email. However, this realm is not evident in the literature assessed in this study.

3.3 Uses of Internet and social media by extremist groups for "religious" radicalization

This section describes the findings in the literature about current uses of Internet and social media by diverse extremist groups. While some groups may have specific uses, there seem to be commonalities across the diverse extremist groups, which may justify the merging of evidence to draw wider conclusions.

Before 2005-06, most of the research on the uses of Internet and social media focused on political extremism, mainly white supremacists in the USA, via the operations of their websites as precursors of social media (Adams & Roscigno, 2004). Their "oppositional culture" was examined either in traditional ways (modes of recruitment, types of actions) or in terms of outreach capacity (focusing on affinities, group identity). The Internet is presented as a new, cheap and easy-to-integrate medium that adds to the communication strategies of such fringe groups. In more recent years, research focus in the regions discussed here has turned to violent radicalization claiming religious rationales, especially in the light of messaging targeting potential recruits not just in the Middle East, but in the West and elsewhere.

3.3.1 The types of usage of Internet and social media

In recent times, more understanding has arisen about the numerous advantages of the Internet and social media for extremist groups using religion as part of a radicalization strategy. Most current evidence comes from reports on radicalized violent groups, focusing mostly on ISIS's Internet strategy.

The advantages stem from the very nature of Internet and social media channels and the way they are used by extremist groups. These include communication channels that are not bound to national jurisdictions and that are informal, large group, cheap, decentralized and anonymous (Hale, 2012; Neumann 2013). This allows terrorists to network across borders and to bypass time and space (Weimann, 2015). Specifically, these channels provide networks of recruiters, working horizontally, in all the countries they target due to the transborder nature of the Internet. Infused with particular interpretations of Islam, these channels are used in several ways to:

➥ Create appealing, interactive user-friendly platforms to attract younger audiences (Weimann, 2015);

➥ Offer spaces where groups can maintain secret but highly democratic communication modes on the assumption that everyone can participate (Weimann, 2010);

➡ Disseminate extremist, violent and criminal content, which would not be well-received offline;

➡ Identify potential participants and provide them with information about 'the cause' and the groups involved in defending it (Busher, 2015);

➡ Deliver massive publicity for acts of violence and enhancing a perception of strength (Wright, 2008);

➡ Provide several opportunities for participation in online and offline activities (Bowman-Grieve, 2009);

➡ Produce false information using the fact that all types of information on the Internet can be displayed on an equal footing, which can provide an illusion of credibility and legitimacy to extremist narratives (Bhui & Ibrahim, 2013);

➡ Facilitate the further process of radicalization post-recruitment, though tactical learning, exploiting confirmation biases (which confirm and amplify people's previous opinions), gathering data and planning attacks (Busher, 2015);

➡ Establish a 24-hour intimate communication that aims at developing relations of complicity and friendship, via networks like Twitter, Facebook, Snapchat that are heavily used by terrorist recruiters;

➡ Foster one-on-one dialogue with young people, so as to isolate the young person at-risk and gradually induct him or her into a new "brotherhood" with violent extremist ideas creating strong interpersonal bonds (Busher, 2015);

➡ Severe offline social ties and replace with online or new offline ties from the extremist group to shape conceptions and inhibit disengagement (Busher, 2015).

3.3.2   The processes of Internet and social media usage

While versions of religion provide a particular narrative, there are more general patterns of violent radicalization that are identified in the literature. Weinmann describes extremist groups' use of Internet and social media in eight process strategies: "psychological warfare, publicity and propaganda, data mining, fund raising, recruitment and mobilization, networking, information sharing and planning and coordination" (Weimann, 2004). Conway identifies five-core terrorist uses of the Internet and social media: "information provision, financing, networking, recruitment and information gathering". The ones most relevant to social media and radicalization of young people are information provision, such as profiles of leaders, manifestos, publicity and propaganda, and recruitment (Conway, 2006). Some studies show that social media enable people to isolate themselves in an ideological niche by seeking and consuming only information consistent with their views (i.e. confirmation bias) (Mohamed, 2007; Warner, 2010), as well as simultaneously self-identifying with geographically distant international groups of international which, therefore, creates a sense of community beyond borders. This ability to communicate can promote membership and identity quests faster and in more efficient ways than in the "real" social world.

While recruitment is a process, and not instantaneous, it is seen in the literature as a phase of radicalization, taking the process to a new level of identification and possible action. Thus, indoctrination is easier post-recruitment and often occurs in specific virtual spaces where the extremist rhetoric is characterized by a clear distinction between "them" (described negatively) and "us" (described positively), and where violent actions are legitimized according to the principle of "no other option available" (Meddaugh & Kay, 2009; Vergani, 2014). These advantages of Internet and social media open up prospects for extremist groups, by facilitating what used to be referred previously as block recruitment (Oberschall, 1973) and by substituting group decision to individual decision-making (Busher, 2015).

3.3.3   The gender issues in religious violent radicalization

In spite of the growing presence of radicalized women online, the number of articles devoted to gender and radicalization on social media is very low (English publications 1% – French publications 2%). One possible explanation may stem from the fact that many women cloak their female identity online, because of a masculinist bias (Bermingham et al., 2009), making them impossible to identify. Secondly, male academics appear to dominate the empirical research field, particularly in some regions. Their research interests seem to be geared to issues of geopolitics and international relations and take little into account the issue of gender or gendered identities.

One identified trend is a feminist claim of women coming forward to take their place in the fighting, which coincides with a structured use of communication processes by terrorist groups to recruit them. Indeed, recruiters seem to use the rise of Islamic feminist which involves a reading of the texts centered on absolute equality (al-Musawa) between all human beings as a religious principle, in order to recruit females on the Internet. There is very little research offering a good overview of this particular gender issue, but some useful sources in this regard include: Pearsons' (2016) analysis of the case of Roshonara Choudhry; "Daesh: Inside the Army of Terror" (Weiss & Hassan, 2015); "Paris: the war DAESH wants" (Atran & Hamid, 2015); "Bride of Daesh: One Young Woman's Path in Homegrown Terrorism" (Speckhard, 2015) and "Femmes de djihadistes" (Suc, 2016). Some reports also discuss the case of European women joining ISIS such as "Becoming Mulan? Female Western Migrants to Daesh" (Hoyle, Bradford & Frenett, 2015).

Such research, especially when it comes from women researchers, shows that, far from romanticism or victimization, women are serious candidates for violent radicalization (≈30% departures to Syria/Iraq war zones) (Von Knop, 2007). This is studied in terms of a search for emancipation as (Muslim) women (Casutt, 2016), with gender-specific expectations of empowerment that do not coincide with the Western understanding of female emancipation (Boubekeur, 2005). The research notes active peer-to-peer support to 'newcomers' via 'sisterhoods' (community, sense of belonging) and promotion of specific female honor (Asquith, 2015) as supporting wives/mothers. Such radicalization may, according to one writer, contribute on the long run to shaping a revenge-seeking, military-trained next generation – a dynamic that has led in other regions to insuperable conflicts (Kneip, 2016).

Online recruitment functions differently at a distance and reshuffles the roles of men and women alike. Internet allows women to move out of relative invisibility, without crossing the limits drawn by their ideology (Hussein, 2016). For example, Jihadist forums are often segregated on the basis of gender. This may induce women to participate online and manage their (in)visibility, while dissimulating their identity, often through jihadists qualifiers of "Umm" (mother; e.g., Umm al Soumayya muhajira, Umm Omar al firansiya, etc). The jihadi woman or muhajirat figure is increasingly valued across social media and women use this image in recruiting missions, acting to convince other women. This heroic and active vision of women is strongly present in social networks and aims at reducing the negative perception that Western women could have of the ideology of ISIS on women and their roles. Their integration into the radicalized ideologies (as creators of the new generation respectful of the true faith and generators of the Caliphate), as well as their involvement in the field of moral police has turned women into a key target in the creation of the 'Islamic State' and its viability (Hoyle et al., 2015). This status grants them a higher position in the social hierarchy of the 'Caliphate,' making them into super-muslim women (Hussein, 2016).

Although there may be a gender based distribution of tasks (e.g. especially where participation in combat is involved), this distinction does not apply when it comes to embracing the radical ideology of, or the legitimation of, violent attacks, as shown in the research dealing with analysis of female jihadist discourse in the ranks of ISIS. These reports reveal that women recognize the same truths and accept the same rules of compliance validated by the doctrine as compared to their male coutnerparts (Hussein, 2016). They wage the war of ideas for traditions like the hijab (headscarf or veil) with a discourse that can at times be fundamentalist and warlike (Küng, 2004). When they are radicalized, women may appear more indoctrinated than men and more prone to encourage political violence (Bermingham et al, 2009).

At the same time as a modicum of attention has been by researchers to the radicalization of women under a religious rationale, even less attention has been given to the construction of masculinity within the same violent radicalization processes.

3.4 Internet, social media and extreme right-wing and left-wing political radicalization

Right-wing extremism is an old phenomenon but on the rise again in many parts of Europe and North America. There is a body of research on extreme right movements that takes into account the different national and cultural settings. However, little has addressed their use of Internet and social media, other than advancing the hypothesis that Internet and social media are also present in violent radicalization of the extreme right (Berger, 2015; 2016) or in so-called "lone actors" (Dickson, 2015; Mouras, 2015). As for left wing violent extremism, it has been associated with lower frequency of offline and online violence, and only one empirical study in academic journals (and no report) could be found that addressed the role of left wing extremism and online radicalization (Biddle, 2015).

Some reports show that extreme right-wing groups take advantage of the freedom of speech guaranteed by many countries' legislations (Dagnes, 2003), to post hateful comments that

however do not represent full hate-speech or illegal acts (Barnett, 2005; Pollock, 2006). Furthermore, these groups seem to mobilize efforts on Internet and social media to convey a more acceptable public image and recruit new members who would otherwise be offended by blatantly racist or hate-based discourse (Gerstenfeld, Grant & Chau-Pu, 2003; Schafer, Mullins & Box, 2014; Schmitz, 2016; Simi & Futrell, 2006).

For example, the discourse found on Stormfront (an early supremacist website, launched in 1995) is particularly noteworthy because it clearly shows the transition towards a more "acceptable" form of racist discourse (Meddaugh & Kay, 2009). The discourses seem to be less aggressive, even condemning violence and refusing to resort to an incendiary rhetoric. Instead, the discourses that are posted use seemingly scientific or intellectual theories about racial differences, in a watered-down version of racist discourse, relying on apparently reliable sources of information that appeal to the general public. More specifically, the racist discourses used by Stormfront relies on a "us" vs. "them" rhetoric, portraying them or 'the other' in five ways as: a) tyrannical (submits white people to rules and laws that serve him, e.g., Jews control the media and the economy); b) manipulator (uses deceit to achieve aims, e.g., brainwashing children with pro-black school programs); c) genocidal (e.g., multiculturalism and interracial marriage are seen as ways to eradicate the white race); d) inferior (e.g., less capacities than white people); and e) a false martyr (e.g., manipulates history to be seen as a victim) (Meddaugh & Kay, 2009).

Countering the theory of fragmentation of electronic media (in which each person is locked up in a niche media which corresponds to his/her own personal interests), some authors argue that cyberspace is helping to create a strong extreme right-wing collective identity and a sense of belonging to a global scale via a process of networking, sharing of information (values, symbols and fears, not just facts), discussion, recruitment and event organization, in similar ways to religious extremist movements (Alava, 2014; Bowman-Grieve 2009; Caiani Parenti, 2011; Cheng, 2012; Giorgiou, 2010). Exposure to extreme right-wing discourses also seems to lead to a significant radicalization of attitudes among certain individuals from diverse political affiliations (random distribution of participants in four experimental groups) (Biddle, 2015). Conversely, this was not the case for exposure to extreme left-wing discourses or exposure to moderate media and mixed media (control group), which generally resulted in a decrease of extremist attitudes (Biddle, 2015). However, some researchers argue that spreading the message to a bigger audience and inspiring violence can make the recruitment easier, but there is no evidence that it leads to a full process of violent radicalization or actual acts of violence being committed (Levin, 2002).

A few reports show that Internet has served extreme right-wing groups in many ways, enabling them to:

➡ Disseminate hate speech and propaganda (Gerstenfeld, Grant & Chau-Pu, 2003; Kaplan, Weinberg & Oleson, 2003; Schafer, Mullins & Box, 2014; Schmitz, 2016; Simi & Futrell, 2006);

➡ Come out of the margins and become mainstream by addressing the general public;

➥ Develop a sense of community and rally the so-called "lone actors" (Gerstenfeld, Grant & Chau-Pu, 2003; Kaplan, Weinberg & Oleson, 2003; Schafer, Mullins & Box, 2014; Schmitz, 2016; Simi & Futrell, 2006);

➥ Bring resources to current members and praise violent methods (Kaplan, Weinberg & Oleson, 2003);

➥ Give the opportunity for small dispersed white supremacist groups, dedicated to the propagation of racial hatred in the United States and Europe, to converge and come together in a global movement (Parent & Ellis, 2016; Perry & Olsson, 2009; Koehler, 2015);

➥ Use Internet to appeal to the antigovernment feelings amongst of the American public, and present themselves as patriotic and religious in the USA (Dagnes, 2003);

➥ Apply marketing strategies to attract and recruit young members (children and teenagers). A study of ten extreme right-wing websites shows that they use cartoons (average of 18.7 occurrences on each website), music (average of 21.7 occurrences on each website), and videogames (four websites out of ten, with an average of 1.6 videogame for each of these four sites) to convey their messages (Crabill, 2008);

➥ Take advantage of Twitter's specificities to coordinate militant attacks (updates, photos, stolen identity) (Weimann, 2010).

3.5 Reception by users and influence on youth

Research on reception and influence on youth is very limited. Most authors focus on reception by self-styled users from Islamist violent extremist groups and very few actually examine the effects of such propaganda on young people at large.

Most research on the topic consists of descriptive papers on the demographics of online supporters of extremist groups, and methodologies suffer from the limitations related to the difficulties of extracting information about age, gender and location. The usual procedure is to look into chatrooms and YouTube videos, and note the user profiles and their associated comments, by classifying individuals as 'supporter', 'critic', 'neither' or 'impossible to determine' (Conway, 2008). What these studies can tell is that young people are a target audience, which is already an established fact, with youth groups ranging from young people beyond 13 (the legal age to be on some social networks though it is well-known that an important percentage of children are also connected), to teens between 13 and 18 or to young adults between 18 and 34 (Conway & McInerney, 2008).

We found two empirical studies on online influence on youth. Bouzar, Caupenne and Sulayman (2014) present the results of interviews with 160 French families with radicalized (though not violent) children aged mainly between 15 and 21. The vast majority of the young people claimed to have been radicalized through the Internet, and this was the case

regardless of their family characteristics and dynamics. The vast majority of the families (80%) did not follow any specific religious beliefs or practices and only 16% belonged to the working class (Bouzar, Caupenne & Sulayman, 2014). At the same time, it is unclear how such broad findings compare to offline and online peer-group communications which the surveyed youth may have sought to conceal. The role of socio-political factors, as distinct from the influence of the Internet, is also an issue that calls into question the claims of the surveyed youth.

Wojcieszak (2010) analysed cross-sectional and textual data obtained from respondents in neo-Nazi online discussion forums. The author found that extremism increases with increased online participation, probably as a result of the informational and normative influences within the online groups. In addition, exposure to different parties/views offline that are dissimilar to the extremist group's values has in some instances reinforced radical beliefs online (Wojcieszak, 2010).

Many authors hypothesize potential causation by associating online radicalization with external factors. The often-cited hypotheses refer to commonly known external factors and social grievances and internal psychological factors in the theoretical literature such as: search for identity and meaning, the growing inequalities in European and other societies, unemployment and fewer opportunities for development especially for minority youth, exclusion, discrimination and inequality that are massively used in extremist discourses (e.g., ATHENA report, 2015; Schils, 2013; Umar & Mustapha, 2015). But again, none have empirically tested the hypothesized associations.

Grey literature reports have sought to describe phases involved in online radicalization, mostly based on case studies. They present a multistep process. Step 1 is often referred to as "The net" where a whole population is targeted as a goal for exposure to extremist discourse; Step 2 is a "funnel" approach where attracted members from "the net" are turned into dedicated members by social bonding, discussion and exposure; they then move along to Step 3 often referred to as the "infection" where selected targets are directed to self-radicalization through exposure to radical material and guidance, finally leading them to Step 4 of "activation", where the young person is ready to receive indirect commands from the recruiters (Weimann, 2015). Again, there is no empirical data to support the validity of the multistep hypothesis.

This view of phases follows what social psychologists call the "foot-in-the-door strategy" (Freedman & Fraser, 1966) where young people enter the extremist group by being asked to perform first-step small and non-costly actions followed by second-step actions that become increasingly important and which "commit" them to the course of action ("escalation of commitment", Kiesler, 1971; Staw, 1976). First contacts are thus rarely focused on violence, and rather tend to present images of strength and pride. The contacts also present invitations to select chat groups where membership is reserved to a select few, which may often be an efficient strategy given that many recruits manifest strong motivation to belong to a select group. Joining the group has however its rituals, which serve to consolidate the transition. Such rituals consist in asking the young person to do tasks to prove his/her loyalty, such as sending propaganda emails to friends, writing inflammatory statements on discussion forums or contributing to online fundraising. In exchange, the recruit receives access to

websites with sensitive information (use of weapons, explosives manufacturing, etc.) (Alarid, 2016; Homeland Security Institute, 2009; Scott & Podder, 2015; Weinmann, 2015). These qualitative studies are based on analyses of the paths of radicalized young people who have fought with ISIS. At the same time, generalizing from this research to create generic phase models have been criticized for being overly linear and for prompting profiling without due process (Malik, 2016).

ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA IN THE VIOLENT RADICALIZATION OF YOUTH IN THE ARAB WORLD AND AFRICA

4.1   A recent field on the rise

Arabic research on radicalization and social media is recent and mostly descriptive (grey literature, press articles or semi-academic texts) for several reasons. On one hand, the majority of works on violent radicalization focuse on the historical, political and religious genesis of the violent jihadist ideologies (Abu Haniyya, & Roummane, 2015; Chqayr, 2014; Al-Khatib, 2014; Hassan, 2015), the sociological profiles of its adherents (El-Haj Salem, 2015) and its propaganda (Abdel-Fattah, 2014; Makram, 2015; Ben Ahmed Ar-Ramih, 2015). On the other hand, the extended use of social media by violent radical groups, particularly ISIS, is recent, dating to 2010. Finally, this research remains limited because most of it is not based on a scientific approach, and it lacks a clear theoretical basis as well as established research methods that are applied to analysis of specific empirical situations.

Recently, several initatives have been launched such as the organization of an international conference on the theme of media and terrorism organized in November 2016 by the Faculty of Information and Communication Sciences of King Khaled University in Saudi Arabia. In September 2016, a group of research centers including the Emirates Center for Strategic Studies and Research in the United Arab Emirates, the Issa Cultural Center in Bahrain and the Royal Institute for Strategic Studies in Rabat launched "Tahallof 'Asifat al-Fikr" (Coalition for brainstorms). This coalition aims at enhancing regional cooperation in the area of research and the fight against terrorism and violence, although it is not yet clear to what extent this will be based on empirical research and testing. One of its main purposes is to develop a counter-discourse media policy.

4.2   Research on violent radicalization in the Arab world, as a new geopolitical issue

The analysis of the evolution of research on violent radicalization in the Arab world and the logics that underpin it follows the geopolitical strategies of the major political forces in this region. The evolution of research on violent radicalization in the Arab world has contributed to the rise of a number of experts and specialists, especially from the Middle East. Research on terrorism, extremism and violent radicalization is linked to these countries' ongoing conflicts and security politics and in a more intense fashion in the aftermath of 9/11. Since

2001, Gulf countries such as Saudi Arabia have been developing a research strategy and several measures against terrorism and violent radicalization. In 2004, Saudi Arabia launched its first digital campaign in the fight against terrorism under the title Al-Sakina (tranquility). This initiative, with the cooperation of the United States, is part of one of the most expensive and longest international counter-radicalization program in the world. In this context, Saudi Arabia, research centers, intellectuals and/or religious figures are increasingly taking part in this rising research trend. Since 2004, King Faisal Centre for Research and Islamic Studies (founded in 1983) and King Saoud University have published three reports relevant to radicalization and social media ("A vision on the concept of terrorism and the position of Islam" by Abderrahmane bin Sulaiman al-Matroudi; "Terror propaganda: Daesh's media and operating strategies" by Mohammad El Araby; "The invisible powers of Daesh in new media" by Abderrahmane al-Qahtani and Abderrahmane al-'Abisi). The reports are based on a transversal analysis of ISIS media strategy and its use of social networks to attract Saudi youth as well as to finance terrorist acts. Results show how ISIS uses computer technicians for hacking email addresses in order to spy for terrorist purposes and how the group also uses social networks to spread its ideology, recruit new sympathizers, and coordinate the tasks and missions of each terrorist member with coded language, among other things.

Meanwhile, Qatar's Al-Jazeera Center for Studies – a research unit created in 2006 and dependent on the media network Al-Jazeera – is increasingly publishing reports on violent radicalization since the Syrian crisis. Between 2014 and 2016, the center published dozens of studies and reports. These studies and reports deal mainly with the themes of the ISIS genesis, its structure (Abu Haniyya, 2014; Abou Roummane, 2014), its ideology (Shams, 2016), its military capabilities (Achour, 2016) and the sociological profiles of its sympathizers (El-Amine, 2014). The center also has links to Arabic-speaking researchers particularly from the Maghreb working on the phenomenon of violent radicalization including Benissa al-Demni and Mahmoud Abdel-Wahid.

In July 2015, Egypt's Al-Azhar launched "the Observatory of Al-Azhar in foreign languages" (http://www.azhar.eg/) as one of the largest databases on Islam and Muslims in the world and on violent radical ideologies. The Observatory publishes reports and articles in eight languages: Arabic, French, English, German, Urdu, Swahili, Persian and Chinese and seeks to develop counter-narratives to violent radicalization. This corpus consists of hundreds of daily, weekly and monthly reports. The Al-Azhar Observatory includes a team of several multi-disciplinary researchers to decipher the phenomenon of violent radicalization through transversal approaches particularly from the media angle. In December 2015, the Observatory published a report on "The use of social networks by Daesh" providing an analysis of the images and the texts of ISIS's media propaganda. The report shows the centrality of social networks in ISIS recruitment strategy. Ousama Nabil, head of the French section and director of the observatory, has published many other reports on the engagement of adolescent girls in ISIS, its strategy in Libya, and its strategy of training new generations of combatants.

A number of experts are on the rise in Jordan, Lebanon, and Iraq (e.g., Hassan Abu Hania and Mohammed abu Roummane from Jordan; Abdel-Ghani Imad and Hazem el-Amine from Lebanon; Hisham al-Hashimi from Irak). Al-Hashimi, al-Amine, abu Haniyya, and abu Roummane have become leaders of this new field in the Arab world, often appearing

on satellite channels to privude information and expertise on violent jihadism. Despite their importance in understanding radicalization in the Arab world, these works offer few elements based on empirical research about online radicalization.

Within the Maghreb countries, Algeria has been producing literature on terrorism since 2000 – following the increase in violent extremism in the country early 1990. The initatives did not, however, lead to the development of a national research strategy, or to the rise of research networks. Nevertheless, some specialists in Islamist movements such as the Moroccan sociologist Abdallah al-Rami, Tunisian Abdellatif Hannachi (historian) and Abdel-Sattar al-Aydi (researcher and journalist) and the Algerian Fawzi Hawamdi have been actively contributing to the public debate on violent radicalization in particular through press interviews or on national audiovisual media.

While the research field remains male-dominated, we have identified a group of female researchers working on the topic such as the Egyptians Amal Mokhtar and Rania Makram (Al-Ahram Center for Political and Strategic Studies), Mariam Wahid (The Arab Center for Research and Studies), Riham al-Abbasi (The Arab Centre for Democratic and economic studies and strategic policies) and Noura Bendari Abdel Hamid Fayed (The Democratic Arabic Center for Strategic, Political and Economic Studies). They are particularly interested in the study of the relationship between violent radicalization and social media through the analysis of radical discourses, and the role of new media in the recruitment of youth. Some groups of female researchers interested in examing women's roles are on the rise, particularly in Egypt, at the Al-Ahram Centre for political strategies and at the Democratic Arabic Centre for Strategic, Political and Economic Studies. They analyse radical discourse and the role of new media in recruiting young people (Mokhtar, 2015; Wahid, 2015; Makram 2015; Al Abbasi, 2016). More details are provided in Appendix 2 on the results of mapping and review of studies from the Arab and Muslim world specifically. Reports published by these researchers show how online social networks, including Facebook, YouTube and Twitter, have become a weapon of war in ISIS's military strategy, not only to recruit new sympathizers but also to extend its relational network. Finally, the researchers highlight the presence of a media strategy established by ISIS.

These research results contribute to an understanding of radicalization online, but suffer from a major methodological weakness because they are, for the most part, the results of a personal reflection on the subject and there is little empirical work. Worth mentioning, nevertheless, is the study by Samah Abdel-Sabour on the uses of social networks by the armed groups (2014). The study argues that the intensive use of social networks by armed groups requires the security services to review their policies with regard to these new threats to national security. Overall, despite the number of reports published by the Arab research centers, none of them empirically assesses the issue of real effects of online ISIS strategies on actual violent radicalization of youth.

4.3 Violent radicalization or terrorism: who says what in the Arab world?

The analysis of the profiles of researchers and publications on violent radicalization from the Arab world reveals the prominence of specialists on Islamist movements. They are, most often, humanities and social science researchers and some are specialists in media and public opinion, international relations, or even security. Another specificity of research on violent radicalization in the Arabic-speaking region is the involvement of religious researchers in this field mainly from the Gulf countries. The main objective of this contribution is part of a state strategy to counter faith advocated by violent radical groups. In this logic, radicalization or jihadism are replaced by the term terrorist in referral to these groups. In other regions, experts use terms such as jihadist Salafism or jihadism or violent radicalization. There is a clear tendency among most Arabic-speaking researchers to avoid the use of the word Islam and its semantic field to denote violent radical groups. This is also why researchers from the region prefer to use the Arabic acronym Daesh or the State Organization instead of the 'Islamic State.'

Most research published from the Arab world does not focus on the relation between violent radicalization and Internet or social media, nor does it evaluate the effect of prevention or intervention cyberinitiatives. The contribution of Arab researchers is however unique and raises issues of definition and conceptualization of the phenomenon of violent radicalization, as well as informs on its perception among the population of the region. In addition, the Arabic research on violent radicalization is broadly characterized, unlike in North America and Europe, by its avoidance of the paradigm of mental manipulation or indoctrination. Research in the Arab world is rather grounded in a historical-political and social approach for understanding the genesis of violent radicalization. The majority of Arab researchers use a macro-level perspective to study and conceptualize violent radicalization as the result of political social and economic crises crossing the region including the US invasion in Iraq and the sectarian conflicts in Iraq and Syria, as well as the Arab Spring, and Western and other foreign policy vis-à-vis these crises.

A significant number of studies from the Arab world focuses on profiles and individual trajectories of theorists and leaders of a particular version of jihad as well as sympathizers and supporters of radical ideologies. These works are based on a framework of choice or foreign influence rather than on individual indoctrination.

4.4 Arab youth activism against violent radicalization through social media

Arab youth are major consumers of social media networks and especially Facebook, which is one of the top ten most used sites by Arab Internet users, a tendency that quickly found its translation into the Arab political realm (Gonzalez-Quijano, 2012). According to a study by Mohamed Ibn Rachid Faculty for governance in the United Arab Emirates, the number of Facebook users in 22 Arab countries increased from 54.5 million in 2013 to 81.3 million in 2014 with a majority being young people. The study of literature in the region reveals the

role played by social networks, especially Facebook and Twitter, as platforms for collective expression for Arab youth on current issues, conflicts and wars (e.g., Gaza situation in particular) (Salem, Mourtada & Alshaer, 2014).

In Iraq, for example, young Internet users and bloggers launched several campaigns on Facebook and Twitter at the beginning of military operations to free the major cities occupied by ISIS (Fallujah and Mosul). In Morocco, other initiatives with the same objective were launched such as the one by Hamzah al-Zabadi on Facebook (مغاربة_ضد_داعش # ; Moroccans against Daesh), which consisted of sharing all kinds of content (images, texts, etc.) to contradict and challenge ISIS's narratives. The involvement of civil society actors on the web in the fight against terrorism and violent radicalization in the Arab region remains modest for many reasons including the lack of media policies dedicated to this struggle. The literature surveyed does not delve into the issues of impact of counter-content.

4.5 Research emerging in Africa

There is little contemporary research on online radicalization in Sub-Saharan Africa. Yet Africa carries at its heart a powerful extremist group: "Boko Haram" whose real name is Jama'atu Ahlu-Sunna wal Jihad Adda'wa Li («Group of the People of Sunnah for Preaching and Jihad») since 2002 and has recently pledged allegiance to the Daesh.

The network is less resourceful and financed compared to Daesh, but it seems to have entered in a new era of communication by the use of social media networks, more so since its allegiance to Daesh (Ould el-Amir, 2015). To spread their principles this terrorist group uses the Internet and adapts Daesh communication strategies to the sub-Saharan African context to spread its propaganda (also in French and English) with more sophisticated videos.

By its presence on the most used digital networks (Twitter, Instagram), Boko Haram breaks with traditional forms of communication in the region such as propaganda videos sent to agencies on flash drives or CD-ROM (Olivier, 2015). Video content analyses has also shown a major shift from long monologues from the leader Abubakar Shekau, that had poor editing and translation, to messages and videos that have increased its attractiveness among sub-Saharan youth. Today, Boko-Haram owns a real communications agency called «al-Urwa Wuqta» (literally «the most trustworthy», «the most reliable way»).

Moreover, the group multiplies its activities on Twitter especially via their smartphones, as well as through YouTube news channels. Most tweets and comments of the group's supporters denounce the Nigerian government and call for support for Boko Haram movement. The tweets are written in Arabic at first and then translated and passed on in English and French, which reflect the group's desire to place itself in the context of what it sees as global jihad. In a recent study conducted in 2015, researchers have shown how Boko Haram related tweets include rejection of the movement by non-members of the organisation (Varin, 2015).

5

ROLE OF SOCIAL MEDIA
IN THE VIOLENT RADICALIZATION
OF YOUTH IN ASIA

With the rapid growth of Internet and social networks in cyberspace, online radicalization has become a worldwide issue, especially in Asia.

Online radicalization in Asia can be analyzed according to four geographic areas, namely Central Asia, South Asia, Southeast Asia and East Asia. Central Asia refers to Uzbekistan, Turkmenistan, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyzstan and Tajikistan. South Asia is represented by Pakistan, India and Bangladesh. Southeast Asia mainly includes Indonesia, Philippines, Thailand, Malaysia and Vietnam, while China, Japan and South Korea represent East Asia. We will focus in this section on the countries that meet the following criteria: a) are among the top 10 Internet users in Asia with manifest online problems, b) are top on the list of countries affected by terrorism or violent extremism (NCTC, 2015).

5.1 Different forms of violent radicalization and their manifestations in Asia

Asia includes five among the top ten countries most affected by terrorism worldwide. Afghanistan, Pakistan and India rank among the top five, with respectively 1708, 1009 and 791 attacks by 2015. The November 2008 attack in Mumbai sparked terrorism studies in the region (Smith, 2013).

Research on radicalization in Asia clearly distinguishes between radicalization, terrorism and the Islamic faith (Tadjbakhsh, 2015; Heathershaw & Montgomery, 2014). The literature from Asia identifies three types of radicalization depending on the different motivations and causes. Although such causes and motivations are diverse and with a certain amount of overlap among them, the research points to differentiated types, according to country and context (Khalid & Leghari, 2014; Tadjbakhsh, 2015), as described below.

5.1.1 Politically-driven radicalization

Radicalization with political purpose is present in a particular set of Asian countries. For example, in Central Asia and China, radicalization as a phenomenon is linked to what is rhetorically refered to as the "Three Evils" (Wu, 2002; Yang, 2014; Li & Zhao, 2015). These are: terrorism, separatism and extremism ("Shanghai Convention on Combating Terrorism, Separatism, and Extremism", 2001 signed by six leaders of the member countries of Shanghai Cooperation Organization [SCO], which are China, Kazakhstan, Kyrgyz Republic, Russian

Federation, Tajikistan and Uzbekistan). Separatism is considered as a form of radicalization in this region due to the fact that several political groups have separatist demands, many in connection with Islam (Tadjbakhs, 2015) (e.g., the Sunni separatist groups in Iran, the East Turkestan Islamic Movement ETIM and their purported influence in Uyghur populations living in the Xinjiang Uyghur Autonomous Region in China, and groups of Chechens in the North Caucasus in Russia).

In Asian countries, political radicalization seems to be region-specific. It is localized and internal despite its direct or indirect links with external and trans-border groups. For example, the ETIM is considered as a terrorist organization in China. In the Autonomous Region in Muslim Mindanao province various groups promote political independence, which is identified as Muslim separatism in the Philippines (Lidasan, 2015).

5.1.2 Religious radicalization

In central and South Asia, this process has been studied more closely since the 1990s and the collapse of the Soviet Union. More than 80 per cent of the total population of the five Central Asian countries are Muslims, and the predominant religion in Central Asia, including Pakistan and Afghanistan is Islam (Pu Shi Institute for Social Science, 2015). Though other forms of religious radicalization exist, with regard to Hindu or Buddhist extremism in the region, most research on violent radicalization in Central Asia and South Asia deals with violent extremism claiming a version of Islam, including in China and the Xinjiang region (Karmon, 2009; Sun, 2010; Li, Zhao, 2015). The reality however speaks to the pheonomenon differently. For instance, India, which has a high number of Muslims (140 millions), barely witnesses violent extremism based on a religious rationale and though there have been instances of organized jihadist terror activities, India has proportionately been a source of very few foreign ISIS fighters (Krishnamurthy, 2015). Further, religious radicalization in South Asia, with Islamic republics such as Afghanistan and Pakistan, does not present evident regional differences as compared to radicalization in other "secular" or multi-religious countries of the region such as India or the Philippines.

5.1.3 Psychosocial and socio-economic radicalization

Researchers in Asia have developed a complex understanding of radicalization as being deeply connected to psychosocial and economic grievances such as poverty and unemployment (Khalid, & Leghari 2014; Tadjbakhsh, 2015), marginalization through illiteracy and lack of education (Tadjbakhsh, 2015), as well as admiration for charismatic leaders, pursuit of social acceptability and psychological trauma. These factors are considered by authors to facilitate online radicalization-oriented recruitment, especially among young people, who are more vulnerable and who spend more time online.

5.2 Radicalization and social media in Asia

A report by "We Are Social" in 2016 reveals that East Asia and Southeast Asia are the first and second social media markets worldwide, with North America in the third rank. According to the same report, Facebook and Facebook Messenger are the predominant social and communications tools, followed by Twitter, Line and Skype. China is the notable exception as Facebook Messenger is outpaced by far by Chinese social media tools.

We found no scientific literature on Internet and social media in relation to violent radicalization in the Asian countries (and written in English, French, Arabic, Spanish or Chinese) with the exception of China and Indonesia.

China presents a very different profile from most countries in its mainstream social media and networks. American platforms such as Google, Yahoo! Facebook, Twitter and YouTube have very little penetration due to state restrictions and the strong monopoly of homegrown search engines and Internet platforms in Chinese language. Baidu is the dominant search engine with similar functions to those of Google. Sina Weibo (which means "micro blog" in Chinese), QQ, and Weixin (called Wechat for overseas users), are the most popular social networking platforms and online communication tools. These social media platforms include similar functions to Facebook and Twitter. The Chinese are heavy users of social media platforms with 282 million Monthly Active Users (MAU) of Sina Weibo, 250 million for MAU of QQ, and a combined MAU of Weixin and WeChat of 846 million.

There is rising interest among Chinese researchers in examining the dialectical relationship between social media and violent radicalization (Tang, 2013). Most publications by Chinese scholars are in Chinese language with Chinese specific terms, so there is a limited availability to the international community of foreign language readers, scholars or researchers. The most prominent research centers are: Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS) Research Centers for Russia; Eastern Europe and Central Asia; CASS Institute of World Religions; CASS National Institute of International Strategy.

Research into violent radicalization or terrorism in China is mainly on radicalization in Xinjiang. This could be linked to the fact that most of the recent terrorist attacks in China were not perpetrated by local residents, but by outsider violent extremist organizations that seek to separate the Xinjiang area from China (Feng, 2009; Li & Zhao; 2015; Zhang, 2013). Terrorist organizations spread their messages via TV, radio and the Internet (Wo, 2016). Though there is no empirical evidence linking youth radicalization to online social media, the anonymity and transborder capacity of such media is seen as a support for organized terrorist propaganda (Du, 2016; Long, 2016; Sun, 2014).

The Chinese government has been responding to terrorist attacks by taking down sites, blocking and filtering content. In return, Chinese government also uses the social media for messaging against terrorism (Liu, 2016).

Indonesia has an estimated 76 million Indonesians who connect regularly on Facebook, establishing the nation as the fourth largest user of the world, after India, the United States and Brazil. Indonesia is also the fifth largest user of Twitter, after the United States, Brazil, Japan and the United Kingdom.

The Institute for Policy Analysis of Conflict (IPAC) examines how Indonesian extremists use Facebook, Twitter and various mobile phone applications such as WhatsApp and Telegram. In recent research, Lefevre (2014) shows that the use of social media in Indonesia by extremists is progressing. They use social media, such as Facebook and Twitter, to communicate with young people, to train and to fundraise online. Recruitment is done through online games, propaganda videos on YouTube and calls to purchase weapons. The proliferation of ISIS propaganda via individual Twitter accounts has raised concerns about the possibility of "lone actor" attacks. That being said, the report points out that such attacks are extremely rare in Indonesia.

6

ONLINE PREVENTION INITIATIVES: COUNTER/ALTERNATIVE NARRATIVES AND MEDIA AND INFORMATION LITERACY (MIL)

Though there is no direct causality implied, the results of the literature review suggest that social media are part of correlated factors that, in combination with other social and psychological factors, may facilitate the radicalization process. Several online prevention initiatives exist and they fall into two main categories:

(a)   Alternative/counter narratives and
(b)   Media and Information Literacy (MIL). The literature is lacking about evidence of impact of such use of social media, and what studies exist are primarily about the global North, highlighting a relative lack of initiatives and related research in most regions of the world.

6.1   Alternative narratives

Some authors suggest that the most promising mode of intervention is to stand up to extremist rhetoric with alternative narratives that challenge the extremist narratives. There is however little consensus or evidence in literature that this would be effective in countering violent radicalization. However, some recent research suggests that counter/alternative narratives could be a promising strategy in prevention (Van Eerten, Doosje, Konijn, De Graaf, & De Goede, in press, 2017). There is also little consensus or evidence on what would constitute the best alternative narrative discourse. Some for instance argue that a strong alternative narrative to violent jihadist groups is to convey the message that they mostly harm Muslims (Archetti, 2012; Cornish, Lindley-French & York, 2011; Corman, 2011; Stevens & Neumann, 2009).

No studies were found which examine the extent to which credible news reports either disrupt or are co-opted into narratives of extremist violence.

Although numerous counter-narrative and alternative-narrative initiatives are being undertaken, there currently are no empirical studies on whether these are efficient prevention measures as regards online violent radicalization. Indeed, the use of counter-narratives is currently highly contested as being potentially counter-productive although here again systematic research is lacking (Harris-Hogan, 2016).

During the last decade, the US government has set up two online programs against radicalization designed to counter anti-American propaganda and misinformation from al-Qaeda or the Islamic state. These programs seek to win the "war of ideas" by countering self-styled jihadist rhetoric. Studies show that these programs, in the US and other countries as well, have a serious credibility gap (Archetti, 2012; Cornish, Lindley-French & York, 2011; Corman, 2011; Stevens & Neumann, 2009). Western participation in wars and bombing of civilians, arbitrary detention, torture, etc., is used by ISIS and others to create an image of hypocrisy, duplicity and propaganda that may undermine counter-narratives and serve to exacerbate resentment in the Muslim world toward the US or other Western countries.

There is also still a need to study private sector counter-initiatives which are less propagandistic in nature. Amongst such initiatives are the YouTube Creators for Change with young "ambassadors" mandated to "drive greater awareness and foster productive dialogue around social issues through content creation and speaking engagements".[9] Another is the "redirectmethod.org" pilot initiative to use search queries in order to direct vulnerable young people to online videos of citizen testimonies, on-the-ground reports, and religious debates that debunk narratives used for violent recruitment. The initiative avoids "government-produced content and newly or custom created material, using only existing and compelling YouTube content".[10]

Consequently, several governments are opting to invest in primary prevention through education of the public at large, and of young public in particular, via various "innoculatory" tactics that can be grouped under the broad label of Media and Information Literacy (MIL). Based on knowledge about the use of MIL in other domains, this initiative can be seen, inter alia, as a long term comprehensive preventive strategy for reducing the appeal of violent radicalization (Earnhardt, 2014; Frau-Meigs, 2011). This is particularly apt for countries where censorship is not an acceptable as such measures are seen to risk producing chilling effects on online expression, participation and privacy. MIL is also relevant even for the countries that do operate strong restrictions on content, given that any conception of a 'protectionist' and 'proscriptive' solution misses out if it fails to address the issue of preparing young people to deal with a host of communications on- and offline that seek to mobilise them for political, gender, ideological or religious purposes.

6.2 MIL and critical thinking

MIL has a long tradition of dealing with harmful content and violent representations, including propaganda (Gerbner, 1998). In its early history, MIL was mostly put in place to fight misinformation (particularly in advertising) by developing critical skills about the media. By the 1980s, MIL also introduced cultural and creative skills to use the media in an empowering way, with active pedagogies (Hobbs & Jensen, 2009; Potter, 2013). Since the years 2000, MIL has enlarged the media definition to incorporate the Internet and social media, adding issues related to ethical uses of online media to the traditional debates over

---

harmful content and harmful behavior and aligning them more with the perspectives that consider issues of gratifications of media users.

UNESCO has accompanied this evolution since the 1980s. The Grünwald Declaration of 1982 is the first document in which Media Education is explicitly included in the UNESCO agenda, emphasizing the need for states to promote a critical understanding of media among their citizens. The 2011 Fez Declaration is another milestone, formalizing the expansion from Media Education to Media and Information Literacy (MIL). The 2014 Paris Declaration on "Media and Information Literacy in the Digital Era" acknowledged the digital shift and called for all stakeholders to recognise that MIL competences are part of the digital agenda, with a human rights ethical dimension. The creation of the Global Alliance for Partnerships in MIL (GAPMIL) further solidified the worldwide awareness raised on the topic. Since 2007, UNESCO has joined forces with the UN Alliance of Civilisations (UNAoC) to associate MIL with intercultural dialogue (including religious and interfaith exchanges) and work with migrants, refugees and young people in areas of conflict. UNESCO has been continuously developing its MIL programme that has many aspects, including designing MIL Policy and Strategy Guidelines dedicated for use by government and other stakeholders; a Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers, which has been designed in an international context, through an all-inclusive, non-prescriptive approach and with adaptation in mind; and the Global MIL Assessment Framework, which offers countries methodological guidance and practical tools through analysis of country readiness and competencies at different levels of society.

Increasing terrorist attacks have called attention to the need for more critical approaches to media via MIL and have added the issue of radicalization to the MIL agenda. It is high time to place MIL at the core of instruction at all levels of formal education, and it needs to be promoted in non-formal and informal educational setting as well. MIL can effectively contribute to enhancing intercultural dialogue, mutual understanding, peace, promote human rights, freedom of expression, and counter hate, radicalization and violent extremism. In fact, MIL is fundamental to producing knowledge for critical thinking, democratic citizenship, independent learning and good governance. In this context, UNESCO has launched the timely Media and Information Literacy and Intercultural Dialogue (MILID) Yearbook 2016, entitled "Reinforcing Human Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism".

Terrorists targeting of journalists and media outlets such as *Jyllands-Posten* in Denmark and *Charlie Hebdo* in France have accelerated this process. In the aftermath of "Je suis Charlie", the European region has produced three documents showing the change in public policies for MIL. The EU education ministers produced the Paris Declaration "on promoting citizenship and the common values of freedom, tolerance and non-discrimination through education" in March 2015. It lays the emphasis on preventing impact in terms of radicalization and propaganda and calls for cooperation at EU, national and local level. The Council of the European Union produced conclusions "on developing media literacy and critical thinking through education and training" in May 2016, which connect MIL and digital competence. This "encompasses the confident, creative and critical use of ICTs" which is posited as "a crucial component of media literacy". The revised Directive on Audiovisual Media Services (adopted in 2017) contains an article on MIL and its importance

for the development of minors and for citizenship. The European Commission Directorate General for Communications Networks, Content and Technology (DG Connect), that encompasses MIL in its remit, has issued a call for research on MIL and radicalization. The H2020 program has also launched calls about radicalization (with mention of social media and their role). North America and other countries in the world have also called for more research on the connection between social media and youth online radicalization, but in a less programmatic version than the European Union (Drotner et al., 2017).

Young people are being exposed to hate and violent extremist content online both purposefully and accidentally (Grizzle & Perez Tornero, 2016). Social media is a dominant space of such exposure, along traditional spaces such as school, prisons, places of worship, and work. On the other hand, many young people recognize that MIL can help them to protect themselves as well as to counter hate, radical and extremist content online (ibid).

In this light, MIL has also been described as a strategy for "reducing demand for extremist content as a means to increase awareness of democracy, pluralism, and peaceful ideas for advancement" (Neumann, 2013). Many specialists in Europe and worldwide advocate for a multi-stakeholder approach to MIL, so that it is carried out in schools and outside schools, including families, and in relation to the media themselves, calling on the social responsibility of media and Internet platforms (Frau-Meigs & Torrent, 2009; Frau-Meigs & Hibbard, 2016). MIL provides an often-missing link with families, educators, and diverse sectors of government that often tend to work in isolation.

At this point in its evolution, MIL appears as a composite notion that has evolved from a pedagogical practice to a social right and a political project. The unified notion of MIL also highlights the importance of an understanding of MIL as fundamental to producing knowledge for democratic global citizenship, learning and good governance (Singh, 2016). As a political project, MIL aims to foster protection of young people from propaganda and harmful content as well as to enhance their participation as a means of maximizing the benefits of freedom of expression and information. As a pedagogical practice, MIL promotes a set of competences that aim to build citizenship participation and creativity as well as critical thinking. Integrally included in these is specifically digital literacy. As a social right, MIL is embedded in universal human rights such as freedom of expression, participation, privacy, security and cultural diversity (Frau-Meigs, 2017).

The last three decades have produced a significant amount of literature on MIL in terms of a specific set of critical competences (Feilitzen & Carlsson, 2004; Hobbs & Jensen, 2009; Frau-Meigs, 2011; Wilson et al., 2011), in terms of reflexive practices of social media in the information era (Buckingham, 2008; Hoechsmann & Poyntz, 2012; Livingstone et al., 2012; Serres, 2012), and in terms of public policies in an era of convergence (Frau-Meigs & Torrent, 2009; Grizzle et al., 2013; UNESCO, 2013; Celot, 2014; Frau-Meigs et al., 2017). A small subset of studies emphasizes the importance of MIL training of teachers and parents and educating them about the role of social networks and videogames. However, most research based on observations of young people (EU kids on line; Jenkins et al., 2009; Livingstone, 2012; Ito et al., 2009) tends to ignore the issue of violent radicalization and concentrates on their. The focus has also been on mainstream social media, like YouTube or Facebook, while more recent social media like Line or Periscope attract less attention.

6.3 MIL initiatives on radicalization, youth and social media

Several formal and informal MIL initiatives have been implemented worldwide based on MIL as a pedagogical practice with a specific set of competences that can deflect narratives of anger and revenge and/or self-realization through violent extremism. These initiatives aim at creating digital counter-narratives that are authentic and reflect youth perceptions of self and others, especially in terms of injustice, felt experiences of discrimination, corruption and abuse by security forces (Mercy Corps, 2015). In this regard, UNESCO and others have organized events about youth and with youth and journalists to consider how best to fight extremism and radicalization (2015).[11] The need to sensitize young people to online freedoms became clear but also the need to train journalists in MIL and in the coverage of terror and extremism, so as to be aware of critical functions of their reportage. [12]

The US State Department has organized several online seminars for Somali bloggers based in Canada, Africa, and Europe "to teach each other on how to improve their websites' functionality and appearance while also reaching out to a wider audience" (Neumann, 2013).

Other programs target youth directly, on the premise that MIL can positively empower youth participation in the marginalization of extremism if not its containment (Cohen, 2015). The UNAOC has recently focused on youth in the MENA region, pushing MIL initiatives in Jordan and in Turkey.[13] They also support action through the popular culture of young people to reach out to them in places such as Jordan and Kenya.[14] UNDP has launched an international competition called "PEACEapp" to promote games and apps as a venue for cultural exchange, conflict management and violence prevention. UNESCO has launched many MIL-related initiatives and projects with a focus on youth or taking youth into consideration, including the MIL CLICKS[15] social media innovation, MIL capacity building for youth organizations, Global MIL Week[16], MIL in Jordan project [17], NETMED project[18] in the Middle East which among other things empower youth with MIL competences for self-expression through media production and participation in social and political transformations. The organization has also supported research research resulting in the resource Opportunities for MIL in the Middle East and North Africa[19], as well as capacity on MIL asa tool for dialogue and tolerance through MIL Massive Open Online Courses (MOOCs)in English[20] and Arabic[21].

In formal educational settings, the literature shows that online resources designed for teachers in a classroom-setting have tended to focus on debunking plot theory and radical propaganda on social networks. They expose rumours and fake news and encourage fact-

---

11 http://en.unesco.org/youth-and-internet-fighting-radicalization-and-extremism
12 UNESCO's 2017 book "Terrorism and the Media. A handbook for Journalists", written by Jean-Paul Marthoz.
13 http://www.unaoc.org/event/media-and-information-literacy-initiatives-jordan-and-mena-region/;   http://www.unaoc.org/event/the-role-of-youth-preventing-violent-extremism/
14 http://www.unaoc.org/2016/08/unaoc-supports-workshop-of-digital-games-development-for-young-urban-refugees-in-kenya/
15 https://en.unesco.org/milclicks
16 http://en.unesco.org/global-mil-week-2017
17 http://www.med-media.eu/project/jordan-media-institute-unesco-launch-media-information-literacy-project/
18 http://fr.unesco.org/netmedyouth
19 http://www.nordicom.gu.se/en/publikationer/opportunities-media-and-information-literacy-middle-east-and-north-africa
20 https://elab.lms.athabascau.ca/login/index.php
21 http://milmooc.aub.edu.lb/

checking online. They do not address violent radicalization *per se* but they address the means of detecting extremist media content. Looking at the media themselves has always been part of media education that works on "authentic" sources. Articles about *Inspire*, Al-Qaeda's digital magazine, can help debunk how the design and content is geared to indoctrination and serves as propaganda (Sivek, 2013; White, 2012). Teachers and young people are given resources that point out distortions of all sorts, from different perspectives. They can become aware of the media outreach strategies of extremist groups and protect themselves. Other initiatives use the participatory culture of the social networks to train youth about the Internet and its issues. The media lab at the university of Rhode Island has produced in 2016 a project called "Mind over Media" to train young people to recognize propaganda and debunk it.[22] Under the aegis of Renee Hobbs, the project encourages contributions and commentaries by teachers and students.

There is some evidence that training in MIL is also expanding via MOOCs. Though there is not yet a MOOC fully dedicated to online violent radicalization, some existing MOOCs on MIL deal with it in their sessions and modules. This is the case for the European Union funded ECO project that aims at quality and cost-effectiveness teaching in the European digital agenda.[23] Within the ECO portal, MOOC "DIY MIL" created in French and in English offers a session on values and human rights that addresses radicalization (Frau-Meigs & Blondeau, 2014-15). The ERASMUS+ MIL-based project ECFOLI offers a MOOC to train teachers and young people about conflict resolution and intercultural dialogue via media literacy, games and story-telling (Frau-Meigs & Blondeau, cited in Osuna et al., 2016).[24] Beyond Europe, UNESCO, in partnership with Athabasca University's chair on Open Educational Resources (Canada) and in cooperation with the Network on Media and Information Literacy and Intercultural Dialogue (MILID), launched a MOOC on "Media and Information Literacy for youth" in 2015.[25]

Because the topic of youth radicalization in relation to social media is relatively new in MIL, research has not yet produced significant results. Several recent project calls have however been launched and field analysis results may be available in the next year. Three major research trends can be discerned that build on long term MIL issues. The first trend looks into the risks related to potential damaging effects of online media as examined via large programs such as the European "Safer Internet". The second trend looks into the solutions that MIL can provide to prevent radicalization, such as identifying fake news, rumors and propaganda. A third and newer trend is related to the evaluation of the specifics of social media that foster the process of violent radicalization and facilitate recruitment, such as the "filter bubble" (Pariser, 2011) and the combined action of tracking algorithms and certain types of sharing and viewing that can seduce disaffiliated youth into looking for more and more radicalized content (Cardon and Granjon, 2014).

However, researchers interested in examining the effectiveness of MIL as a preventive measure regarding violent radicalization in the classroom or outside (e.g., in the community, with families) face numerous methodological challenges. Longitudinal designs are difficult

---

to implement due to the difficulty of creating valid indicators and the fact that radicalized youth are rarely part of the samples observed. The bottom-up emergence of good practices in MIL on this topic points to the importance of coordinated implementation among various types of stakeholders (Costa et al., 2017; Cappello & Chapman, 2016). In addition, there are no validated tools for cross-country comparisons and robust methodological techniques attendant to them. These gaps point to the need for research to provide multi-disciplinary perspectives to bridge the existing gaps in knowledge about MIL's effective contribution to competences, evaluation and training.

KEY FINDINGS

The current state of evidence on the link between Internet, social media and violent radicalization is very limited and still inconclusive, and particularly so in the field of information and communication sciences as compared to other disciplines (history, sociology, psychology). Most of the reviewed academic studies and grey literature research and reports from specialized agencies that look into the role of Internet and social media remain predominantly descriptive. When empirical data is drawn, most studies are of low methodological quality, small-scale and rely on limited data sets. As a result, they fail to provide evidence on the drivers of interest to extremist sites, engagement in social media on these issues, the reasons for influence of content and the external and internal correlated factors, as well as the trajectories of youth who come to perpetrate violent acts.

This being said, it can extrapolated that Internet and social media may play an active role in the violent radicalization process, mainly through the dissemination of information and propaganda, as well as reinforcing the identification and engagement of a (self)-selected audience that is interested in radical and violent messages (Brachman & Levine, 2011; RAND Europe, 2013; Sageman, 2008; Von Behr, Reding, Edwards, & Gribbon, 2013; Weimann, 2004).

In this sense, rather than being initiators or causes of violent behaviors, the Internet (and social media specifically) can be facilitators of radicalization. According to the literature, Internet's role thus seems more specifically one of decision-shaping rather than triggering decision-making, and it works through the creation of an environment of like-minded people constituted in opposition to an "Other". Actual violent radicalization entails the mediation of several complex processes, including more complex social-psychological processes and person-to-person communication in conjuction with other offline factors. Causal links between radicalization towards extremism, violent radicalization and the actual commission of acts of extreme violence are far from being established, not withstanding the intentions and aims of relevant actors using social media to achieve some of these outcomes. The following sub-sections present specific key findings by topic area.

7.1 Specific social media platforms

Based on descriptive evidence, it may be further hypothesized that chatrooms can act as accelerators of transformation where their members are self-selected and positively predisposed for extremist ideology. However, the researchers could not find empirical evidence to suggest that such is the case, nor any evidence to contradict it.

No empirical evidence was found that Facebook, Twitter and other platforms have a causal impact on the outcomes of violent radicalization among young people, nor is there evidence to contradict it. Facebook is possibly a space of first approach for online radicalization and

a space where extremist ideas are disseminated, without necessarily transitioning to violent beliefs or violent actions by receivers of such content.

Currently, there appear to be no studies linking videogames to real world violent radicalized actions, but one plausible hypothesis is desensitization to virtual violence.

Based on current studies, there is to date no empirical evidence to suggest that social media self-regulatory measures help reduce violent radicalization outcomes among young people, although nor is there any evidence to contradict this possibility.

Most evidence on types and processes of Internet and social media uses is limited to retrospective anecdotal case studies or file analyses of religion-linked violent radicalized individuals. Although informative, these studies are generally of low methodological quality and do not inform about which process of Internet and social media use might have led to actual violent radicalization, nor do they clarify how this translates (or not) into violent behavior.

7.2 Gender and radicalization

Existing research on gender, social media and radicalization is highly exploratory and descriptive and none of the consulted studies/reports offer a full overview of the gender issue in social media.

Women's role in online radicalization remains under-researched and under-estimated.

Research has focused on ISIS in a disproportionate manner, and there is little interdisciplinary/intercultural research on extreme right wing, left wing or radical feminist women's involvement on the Internet and social media. The end result is a partial understanding of the role of women in violent radicalization online.

The victimization paradigm of women engaged in violent radicalization is clearly limited in providing a comprehensive understanding of their role in radicalization online (and offline). Extremist and hate movements are increasingly building on women's participation and the stereotype of terrorism as largely dominated by men is changing.

There is an absence of research into the construction of masculinity in relations to ideas of feminity, when it comes to gender, social media and radicalization.

There is also a gap in research on the ways in which PVE/CVE and de-radicalization strategies address each gender, with interrelated as well as separate discourses.

More women researchers, including young researchers (digital natives) are needed worldwide. Their life experiences may help to enrich understanding of the gender-specific and youth-specific aspects of (violent) radicalization and the role of the social media in this process.

7.3 Extreme right and left wing

There is to date no empirical evidence to link extreme right-wing groups' use of Internet and social media to actual violent radicalization among youth.

One study presents evidence that some young people are vulnerable to extreme speeches, partly through confirmation bias and rationalization processes, and because they lack a sense of perspective to judge the reliability of information sources and their use (Biddle, 2015). Others suggest that a reason for listening to (radical) voices is that these give meaning to a lived experience (Blackwood, Hopkins & Reicher, 2015). Studies such as these could be replicated on a larger scale.

7.4 Media and Information Literacy

Although promising, the success and/or efficiency of general MIL programs on prevention of violent radicalization have not been assessed.

Although MIL programs are becoming more widespread, literature is skewed to experiences in the global North, and none could be identified that specifically address violent radicalization. There were no empirical studies to be found on the issue of their efficacy in regard to reception issues concerning preventing online violent radicalization.

7.5 The Arab world and Africa

Currently, there is little scientific research on radicalization and social media in the Arab world. Studies show a strong presence of terrorist groups on social media but are limited to being descriptive rather than analytical. This work explicates the risks of spreading extremist ideas and warns of possible 'confusion' that this information can produce in consumers.

No published studies nor grey reports could be found that deal with the impact of social media on violent radicalization of Arab youth, nor on the impact of prevention initiatives and policies in the Arab world.

The same research lacuna applies to studying the impact of control of Internet censorship and media institutions, a common phenomenon on the region. Some see this as preventing the emergence of credible, independent alternatives to extremist content (Radsch, 2016).

Research pertaining to Africa is only emerging, and points towards the significance of considering mobile platforms as vehicles for intended radicalization towards violent extremism.

7.6 Asia

Due to a lack of empirical studies, it seems difficult to provide specific trends and conclusions on social media and radicalization in Asia.

Regional centers of expertise are not yet existent which translates into an absence of networks and research hubs that can focus on violent radicalization and its specific challenges in the cyberspace.

CONCLUSIONS

8

Given the importance of young people as citizens and as potential ambassadors for peace, the research on the reasons and explanations of online violent radicalization of some youth should be thoroughly investigated. This has to be balanced with the obligation of states to protect and promote young people's safety and freedoms, especially in terms of freedom of expression, participation and privacy even while curtailing hate speech online.

Radicalization of young people online has yet to attract a critical mass of studies for the research to be credible in its conclusions and recommendations. There is currently only a small amount of quantitative of qualitative data on the topic, in contrast to the literature on empowerment of young people on safe Internet use. While the grey literature (eg., reports, profiles, in-depth journalism investigations) on violent radicalization and terrorism has increased over the last few years (from 2012 onward), the academic field is still largely under-researched and under-theorized. Furthermore, several studies suffer from significant methodological limitations such as anecdotal case studies (based on single case studies), small and unrepresentative samples or data sets (small-scale corpora, snapshot analyses). In addition, there is an asymmetry between the number of studies conducted in Western countries and research in the rest of the world, particularly the MENA countries, which can lead to an inherent bias in construction and validity of theoretical models and in interpretation of results.

Currently, there is some evidence for correlation between exposure to extremist propaganda and recruitment and the expression of extremist attitudes and increased risk for violent radicalization among youth, particularly in the case of extreme right wing groups (Briddle, 2015). However, the exact roles and processes via which Internet and social media contribute to the radicalization process need to be further explored. However, there is not sufficient evidence to conclude that there is a causal relationship between online extremist propaganda or recruitment via Internet and social media and the violent radicalization of young people.

The synthesis of evidence shows that, at its best, social media constitutes a facilitating environment rather than a driving force for violent radicalization or the actual commission of violence. Thus, there is no clear evidence that social media's influence can act independently of other offline factors, though online and offline dimensions are becoming increasingly porous. In this sense, Internet and social media can act as reinforcement because young extremists can then actively seek and find material in social media to feed their interests, and in doing become prey to enrolment in violent actions.

Some prevention strategies, which have been devised for security services, have also been used for teachers (Kovacich & Jones, 2002). Professionals of various kinds have received training sessions in warfare tactics by terrorist groups. In some countries like France and the UK, teachers and other educators are being trained to recognize early signs of online (self)-radicalization among their students so as to report them and try preventive methods.

No studies could be found that investigate in depth the efficiency of these methods. On the other hand, there are numerous journalistic, anecdotal and grey literature reports that point to the high level of false positives, the dangers of detection and profiling by school personnel, and negative outcomes on youth, families and communities.

The literature does reveal a developing trend for online counter-measures that are context-sensitive and which challenge extremist representations, claims and hate speech. Pro-active strategies tend to take two major forms: online counter-narratives and grassroots anti-propaganda initiatives, offline and online. They tend to be limited in scope and suffer from lack of funding which prevents them from maintaining their online presence and reaching out to young people in process of radicalization. This also prevents such programs from being evaluated for effectiveness. Furthermore, several authors (for example, Ferguson, 2016) are now challenging the efficiency of counter-narratives and pinpointing their potential counter-productive effects. The assumption that they can counter violent extremism narratives, or real threats of violent extremism, "remains unproven" (Ferguson, 2016).

Overall, few MIL initiatives have been assessed for efficiency. The research in this area tends to make anecdotal mention of online resources designed for teachers in classroom settings. The diverse initiatives that have been implemented in several countries are generally presented as improving youth's critical competences to navigate online, but no evidence could be located on their efficacy in reducing the risk of online violent radicalization.

A number of conclusions can also be made about the limitations of the surveyed research.

One major caveat in literature stems from the fact that many research frames have turned into myths, buzz words and Internet memes that could be detrimental to the image of young people and to the image of the Internet at large such as: the network metaphor, the echo chamber, the lone wolf, the greenbird. These labels paradoxically feed into the communication strategies of many extremist groups, by granting them power over setting the agenda and the narratives and helping them monopolize attention to their issues to the detriment of other realities (such as women's plight). For instance, the image of the embedded, self-radicalized "lone actor" feeds the narrative of chaotic, arbitrary acts of violence that can reach the general public anytime, anywhere, with an internal enemy. The image is often sourced to direct online radicalization via social networks and is often considered to be related to ineffective or impossible police work to ensure safety. Yet, there is no empirical proof of individuals acting in isolation or as a mere encounter with radicalizing content online. Indeed a convincing rebuttal of the assumptions has been put forward (The Guardian, 2017).

There is also little presence of the theory and history of propaganda, indoctrination and media effects in the literature, and diverse paradigms are drawn used by different authors. These range from uses and gratifications theory, which attributes effects to what the user makes of the messages consumed, through to behaviouralist stimulus-response where exposure *per se* results in short-term affective outcomes (whether reinforcement or change-oriented). Lacking are more holistic models which take into account the different ways that various communications (such as news media, social media and the entertainment industry) operate at levels of knowledge, attitude and practice. Theories of indirect effects

via diffusion, multistep flows, and the intersections between different media types are rarely referred to (such types including public news media, social media, closed fora such as Whatsapp groups, and one-on-one interpersonal messaging exchanges). In addition, there is little attention to theory about the roles of agenda-setting, framing, and ideological impacts in relation to the development of individual and group identity and action.

There is also very little analysis of policy strategies from a theoretical point of view that would locate these strategies in deeper political economy and institutional praxis.

Furthermore, research evidence is very limited or lacking in a number of other important topics such as: a) the intersections between online participation in extremist groups and offline violent radicalization and actions; b) the efficacy of training online (without "real" experience such as training camps); c) power and limitations of online "control systems" (tracking, blocking); d) the influence of cloaked websites (that are hard to reach except by highly motivated individuals); e) active individuals seeking extremist content vs. passive and accidental encounters and their impacts.

On a positive note, the scarcity of empirical research offers numerous opportunities for future studies in terms of topics and methodology. Research methodologies need however to be upgraded. The use of Social Network Analysis, especially combining lexical analysis and emotional analyses, is highly promising. However, existing studies using technology and algorithms are built on very small samples. The use of standard tools that lack radicalization-specific granularity (Geographic Information Systems, Social Network Analysis) is not reliable enough to identify errors. Future studies using these technologies may benefit from including more diversified and wider samples in order to explore in-depth the impact of visual or textual propaganda on the process of radicalization. More quantitative and qualitative studies are also needed to explore the offline consequences of online extremism.

Researchers face significant empirical, methodological and ethical challenges, which may partly account for the current state of the literature. Conducting research linking social media to offline violent radicalization requires infiltration of some kind to get access to encrypted and closed-access spaces or proxy sites (particularly cloaked sites). In addition, although extremist groups do not trust large-scale commercial networks, most studies surprisingly focus on these networks, overlooking cloaked websites and other spaces where more information could be revealed about at-risk sympathizers, their identity, their social circles and their actions. This, and the possible young age of participants, combine to pose significant ethical challenges in terms of privacy rights and protection of the most vulnerable but also in terms of the potential use and mis-use of such information after collection.

A further significant point to consider is the different informational and communications contexts in which online radicalization efforts are to be studied. There is a big question as to whether findings in liberal environments have any resonance in more closed ones, and vice versa. This may explain some of the regional diversity registered in this Report, and more attention needs to be paid to the significance of the wider context of freedom of expression and the right to information in each given study instance.

Partly for this reason, it can also be questioned whether a search for general causal effects in this area can ever be definitively resolved. Significantly, the lack of evidence of direct

causation itself is valuable because it cautions against any policy measures that take for granted such a link, and which – on this basis – could limit rights to expression, privacy and association without substantive justification.

9 RECOMMENDATIONS

On the basis of the literature assessed in this Report, the following observations and recommendations can be formulated:

General observations

➥ The process of online radicalization of youth is a global and multi-faceted phenomenon in which social media are used as a strategic tool to try to incite violent behavior.

➥ The role of such social media should not be isolated but seen in the context of both other communicational platforms and significant social factors such as the political, social, cultural, economic and psychological causes.

➥ There are insufficient studies that effectively address the role of communications in reinforcing or countering incitement for radicalization towards violent extremism.

➥ Research confirms, however, that many uses of social media by terrorists are meant to foster fear among Internet users in general and to polarize societies. In addition, the ambition includes incitement and recruitment of individuals to join their cause and engage in violence. At the same time, the actual reception and impact of online radicalization efforts needs much more study.

➥ Attempts to combat Internet dimensions of the violent radicalization of youth do not have proven efficacy, but it is clear that they can damage online freedoms, especially freedom of expression, freedom of information, privacy and the right to association.

➥ International standards of legality, necessity, proportionality and legitimate purpose are essential in considering any limitations of media including social media.

➥ There is a need to further explore and research how both online and off-line platforms can be harnessed to mobilize young people to develop narratives of peace, promote inclusion, equality and intercultural dialogue.

➥ There is a need to highlight the importance of reliable information, such as professional and independent journalism, as a factor in countering inciteful narratives which mobilise falsehoods to promote their objectives.

RECOMMENDATIONS:

States could consider to:

➡ Strengthen the cooperation with the international community and all relevant actors in order to join efforts to prevent youth radicalization and combat violent extremism in all its forms.

➡ Develop and implement comprehensive effective measures for preventing radicalization that leads to violence, and to elaborate national policies and/or action plans dedicated to this end.

➡ Reinforce a global dialogue about proportionate positive actions to counter radicalization, and place it within the remit of UNESCO's Internet Universality Principles (Rights, Openness, Accessibility, and Multistakeholder participation), which promote a human rights-based approach, and keep perspective on the overwhelming benefits of the Internet at the same time as mitigating abuses.

➡ Strengthen the overall education sector responses to violent extremism, including through human-rights based Global Citizenship Education (GCED) programmes and teachers and other youth mediators' trainings.

➡ Promote and evaluate MIL strategies, recognizing that new technologies are also a tool that can be used for: preventing violent extremism; encouraging counter and alternative narratives; advancing citizen education; and developing critical thinking. In this way, MIL can support human rights, dialogue, mutual understanding and tolerance, and empower young people to be masters of their own identity and to detect and resist online radicalization efforts.

➡ Take into account and encourage the participation of youth in decision-making processes, in line with the UN General Assembly Resolution 2250 and empower them to lead new digital projects in favor of peace, tolerance and mutual understanding.

➡ Recognize the changing status of women as both actors and targets of online radicalization, and support greater representation of women (and young people) in relevant research projects.

➡ Deepen engagement with civil society organizations, relevant local communities and non-governmental actors acknowledging their role in contributing to the effectiveness of the implementation of counter-terrorism national plans and strategies.

➡ Support research institutions and scholars to study online violent radicalization, in the wider context of other dimensions, at a greater scale and quality, and through regional and global networks.

Private sector, media and Internet intermediaries could consider to:

➥ Ensure professional and conflict-sensitive journalistic coverage by providing verifiable information and informed opinion and be cognisant of language and narratives that can foster division, hatred and violent radicalization.

➥ Sensitize news media online and offline to avoid pitfalls of fearmongering, stereotyping, confirmation bias, fake news and the creation of "media panics", and to reassert the importance of media ethics in the face of radicalization of young people for violent extremism.

➥ Evolve social media Terms of Service in a consultative manner so as to ensure a legal and proportionate basis for action, especially in relation to governments or other third party pressures for tracking, disclosing or sharing information about young users, and for removal of content aimed at inciting radicalization towards violent extremism.

➥ Define and manage expressions of hate without compromising rights to freedom of expression, drawing upon the principles set out in the Rabat Plan of Action by the UN High Commission on Human Rights.

Civil society and Internet users could consider to:

➥ Increase efforts of civil society organizations to leverage social media to drive the formulation and dissemination of peaceful messages, alternative and counter-narratives that challenge terrorist propaganda and hate speech.

➥ Promote civil society organizations as advocates for empowering counter-narratives and building participatory communities around peaceful values.

➥ Support family-based networks online and offline, along with parental influence, and invest in social fabric that can moderate feelings of alienation amongst youth.

➥ Promote literacies that favour non-violent conflict resolution and a culture of peace.

➥ Educate Internet users about ethical online behavior, privacy issues and the risks associated with the disclosure of personal data and other potentially sensitive information (through social media), as well as how to recognize and flag illegal content/activities and terrorist abuse of social networks.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Methodology and systematic search strategy
Appendix 2. Mapping of authors and literature on radicalization and social media
Appendix 3. The centers or institutions examined in this research: breakdown by country
Appendix 4. Québec's Call for Action

The following are online only:

Appendix 5. Bibliography of selected works published in English
Appendix 6. Bibliography of selected works published in French
Appendix 7. Bibliography of selected works published in Arabic
Appendix 8. Bibliography of selected works published in Chinese
Appendix 9. General plurilingual bibliography

http://en.unesco.org/preventing-violent-extremism
http://en.unesco.org/themes/fostering-freedom-expression

APPENDIX 1.
METHODOLOGY AND SYSTEMATIC SEARCH STRATEGY

In order to meet the objectives of this review, we adapted the highly robust review methodology developed by the Campbell collaboration (Boruch, 2004). We have fine-tuned the details of every step in line with the specific nature and objectives of our review. Campbell's method is also in the core of major systematic review methodologies employed by leading organizations such as Cochrane, and PRISMA guidelines (https://www.campbellcollaboration.org). Each review step is described below, along with the review search results. These steps are inter-related key steps conducted in a continuous iterative process (Bernard et al., 2014).

1.1 Generic research steps

STEP 1. Formulate the review question and set the definitions. We started with formulating the review question, which guided the objectives and methods of the systematic search: "What are the roles of social media in the process of violent radicalization and to what extent do prevention/intervention initatives address this role?"

The review question structured the review process by setting the target population (e.g., youth), operationalizing the definitions and expected outcomes, and illustrating the links among the different concepts of interest. In this review, we used the following definitions for the major constructs/variables:

Violent Radicalization: we used elements drawn from the three definitions presented in the main body of this report. Prevention: for the purpose of this review, prevention includes any strategy or program related to Internet and social media in order to reduce risk for violent radicalization among youth. Intervention: refers to any strategy or program related to internet and social media that specifically targets youth who have become violently radicalized and that aims at reducing intended or current violent behaviour. This includes de-radicalization programs (programs that are intended to change individuals' attitudes and beliefs that justify violent extremism). Media/Internet: included all Web 2.0 based technology communication platforms.

Our work excludes structured forms of guerrilla warfare or civil war, revolutionary actors with their violent forms, violent forms structured by illegal organisations (mafia, gangs). Our work also excludes radical forms of thought (anti-system, populism, conspiracy) where these refute violent or terrorist acts.

STEP 2. Set inclusion/exclusion criteria. The criteria we used to set admissible evidence are based on the US Preventive Services Task force and the Canadian Preventive Services Task force standards. The guiding principle is to target evidence "most critical to make recommendations". Because researching the link between Internet and violent radicalization is relatively new, a search strategy that is highly specific would have significantly reduced the number of relevant studies. We decided to opt for increased sensitivity by using the "Best Available Evidence" approach as adapted by Petticrew and Roberts (2006). One challenge of this approach is that it is likely to produce a large number of papers with diverse methodologies in the bibliographic searches. However, the net advantage is that it increases the likelihood of including relevant studies that use a different conceptual framework (e.g., studies on terrorism) but include operational measures and outcomes relevant to our review. This in turn was hoped to improve the generalizability, consistency and triangulation of evidence as well as reduce the risk for chance results. The following inclusion criteria, guided by the review question, set the rules for the evidence we considered admissible for the purposes of this review:

➡ Written in English, French, Spanish, Arabic, or Chinese
(languages spoken by the research team).

➡ No restriction for document type or method.

But any of these documents had to include:

➡ Violent radicalization or terrorism AND Internet/social media.

STEP 3. Searching the literature.

STEP 3.1. Searching the literature for North-America, Latin-America and the Caribbean and Europe. Each country team developed the search strategy most adapted to its scientific and grey literature bases (Journalistic or thinktank articles available to scientists). Each team consulted with a library science expert and developed the most suitable key words and devised a search strategy which is diversified and includes a search of bibliographic reference databases, "grey" literature resources, the Web teams also used personal contacts to identify experts or consortiums working on issues relevant to radicalization. First, we ran database searches (See Table 1 for an example of search databases and an example of a search key words and strategy for PsycINFO). To reduce "publication bias" (Bernard et al., 2014), we conducted a thorough search for "grey" literature. We web-searched for studies and reports from main research organizations and research/think tanks on security issues (e.g. TSAS, TERRA, Homeland security institutes, Government ministries, see Freedman, 2010), and examined local journals and publications, conference proceedings, dissertations and theses, etc. We completed the search strategy by hand-searching paper journals and reference lists from the relevant review papers and by contacting key experts in the field.

Table 1. Example of English search key words and search databases

Key words		
("Radical Islam*" OR "Islamic Extrem*" OR Radicali* OR "Homegrown Terror*" OR "Homegrown Threat*" OR "Violent Extrem*" OR Jihad* OR Indoctrinat* OR Terrori* OR "White Supremacis*" OR Neo-Nazi OR "Right-wing Extrem*" OR "Left-wing Extrem*" OR "Religious Extrem*" OR Fundamentalis* OR Anti-Semitis* OR Nativis* OR Islamophob* OR Eco-terror* OR "Al Qaida-inspired" OR "Daesh-ISIS-inspired" OR Anti-Capitalis*)	AND	("Online Social Networks" OR "Cyberbullying" OR "Online Community" OR "Communications Media" OR "Computer Mediated Communication" OR "Social Media" OR "Telecommunications Media" OR "Websites" OR "Information Systems" OR "Internet" OR "Communication Systems" OR "Electronic Communication") OR ("social media" OR online OR bebo OR facebook OR flickr OR foursquare OR friendster OR hulu OR instagram OR linkedin OR meetup OR pinterest OR reddit OR snapchat OR tumblr OR xing OR twitter OR yelp OR youtube)
Limit both by	Publication Year : 2001-2016 Language: English	
Examples of searched databases		ABI/Inform Global, Academic Search Complete, ATLA Religion Database, Canadian Public Policy Collection, Canadian Research Index, CBCA Complete, Communication Abstracts, Education Source, ERIC, FRANCIS, International Political Science Abstracts (IPSA), Medline, OpenGrey, PAIS International, Political Science Complete, ProQuest Dissertations and Theses, PsycINFO, SocINDEX, Sociological Abstracts et finalement, Web of Knowledge
Example of grey literature search		A list of 100 organisations and think tanks in the domain of radicalization, extremism and terrorism and all links to other resources from these websites for a total of 628 consulted websites.

STEP 3.2. Searching the literature for Arab countries. Additional Arabic literature searches: In addition to the systematic review method, a first research on publications in Arabic or related to Arabic works on the phenomenon of radicalization enabled us to identify a significant number of publications (books, studies, reports, scientific papers, semi-academic and journalistic articles) and conferences (meetings, conferences and research workshops) on this phenomenon.

In order to do this, we used keywords such as radicalization (tatarrof), terrorism (irhâb), the "Islamic State" (addawla al-islâmiyya) Daesh, jihad (jihâd), or the jihadists (moudjâhidîn) that we have associated with other such as: jihadist propaganda (di'âya jihâdiyya), social media (i'lâm ijtima'î) or the media strategy (istrâtijiyya i'ilâmiyya). Our research was carried out mainly with filters of language, country, and region (Maghreb, Mashreq, Gulf region). We also targeted the sites of the major research centers in humanities and social sciences in the Arab world in order to understand the role of research on violent radicalization in this region.

STEP 3.3. Searching the literature for Chinese, South and Southeast Asian countries. All searches are mainly based on three largest and mostly-used academic online libraries and databases in China, namely, CNKI (China National Knowledge Infrastructure), Wanfang, and Vip database. We also included in our search, three English language databases, Springer link, Science direct and Wiley online library, in order to include Chinese scholars' publications in English or publications on radicalization in China.

We cross-referenced Chinese keywords such as "radicalization" (激进化), "radicalism" (激进主义), "extremism" (极端主义), "terrorism" (恐怖主义), "fundamentalism" (原教旨主义), " Islamism" (伊斯兰主义), "Al Qaeda" (基地组织) with keywords "social media", "new media", "online", "cyberspace", "youth" and "China". The search results show that there are several publications on new media, social media, and radicalization respectively and separately while very little on "youth online radicalization". Furthermore, most publications on this topic focus on the phenomenon in Western countries. Importantly, there was an issue of semantics, because we found no results when combining social media, youth radicalization and China. This is due to the fact that Chinese scholars tend to use the words "extremism", "terrorism", "religionism", "fundamentalism", "Islamism" and "Al Qaeda" to discuss violent radicalization in Chinese publications. Finally, there are little if no use of keywords such as "Daesh" and "ISIS" in Chinese publications.

After the initial three research steps including the searches in additional languages, we continued the systematic review in five additional steps in order to extract and synthesize data and information from selected research.

STEP 4. Select studies for inclusion in the review. First, members of each country research team screened abstracts, in order to eliminate clearly ineligible studies. Second, they reviewed full-text documents for final screening of eligibility using a scale from 1 (definite exclusion) to 5 (definite inclusion). Disagreements were discussed and decisions were obtained by consensus. We used the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-analyses (PRISMA) framework as a template to record the results of the literature searches into a flow chart (available at http://www.prisma-statement.org/statement.htm). The flow chart also documents the reasons for exclusion, as seen from Figure 2 below.

STEP 5. Gather information from studies. The data and information from each selected study were first screened (using data screening sheets derived from Cooper, 2010). The information and data were then extracted using coding sheets for data extraction. Coding sheets provided information on the following categories: author, year, study setting, study design, objectives, samples of participants, measures, prevention/intervention programs (when applicable), outcomes, results, main conclusions, etc.

STEP 6. Analyze and integrate the outcomes of research. We performed several parallel aggregations of evidence according to: a) the different concepts emerging from the review process; b) the study type; c) the geographic zone of study; and d) the prevention or intervention-focused studies; among others. This aggregation method has the net advantage of organizing very heterogeneous data/evidence sets into meaningful wholes. The research team members conducted the data extraction and synthesis.

STEP 7. Interpret the evidence. In this step, we synthesized the accumulated evidence specifically in terms of: (a) the different themes that emerged from the literature; (b) the degree of trust in each conclusion (in terms of available information and robustness of studies and reports); (c) the generalizability and applicability of conclusions; (d) the limitations of existing knowledge and future recommendations.

STEP 8. Extract key recommendations and finalize the report: The review team extracted the key recommendations with focus on limitations and future orientations. We use a narrative synthesis method to integrate the results in the report, which is structured according to the PRISMA group guidelines for report writing (Mhoer et al., 2008).

Figure 1. Search strategy flow chart

PRISMA 2009 Flow Diagram

Identificatin

Records identified through database searching
(English = 3 516
(French = 614)
(Arabic = 192)
(Chinese = 71)

Additional records identified through other sources
(n = 124) gray literature

Records after duplicates removed
(n = 4 517)

Screening

Records screened
(n = 1 956)

Records excluded
(n = 2 561)

Eligibility

Full-text articles assessed for eligibility
(English = 261
(French = 205)
(Arabic = 96)
(Chinese = 32)

Pull-text articles excluded, with reasons
(n = 1 362)

Studies included in qualitative synthesis
(n = 449) 69 %

Included

Studies included in quantitative synthesis (meta-analysis)
(n = 2) 31 %

1.2. Overall search results (by theme and continents)

Below, we present the results of steps 5 and 6 of the review process, which are the results of aggregation process. Table 2 provides the results by study design, scientific field and overall topic in the three main languages. In the following table, we wanted to have an overview analysis of the articles. We first examined the following three working languages (English, French, Arabic) in order to identify the methodological choices and the disciplinary orientations.

Then we gave these resources keywords to identify the content orientations. Sometimes, it was complex to pick one keyword but we then listed the most representative keywords. For example, the approach in the text can be focused on terrorism but also include violent aspects. We then favored the most frequently cited words. In the end (details in Figures 3-7), it can be seen that:

➥ Qualitative and sociological approaches are the most numerous in English. On the other hand, in French the approaches are rather from the political sciences.

➥ While quantitative and qualitative approaches are equivalent in English and Arabic, quantitative methods are very rare in French.

➥ Themes relating to terrorism and violent attacks are generally dominant in all three languages, but the notion of radicalization is little present in Arabic and less so in English.

➥ The references to Islam are not very present in English, and even less so in French and Arabic.

Table 2. Results by study design, scientific field and overall topic

	Contents	English	%	French	%	Arabic	%
Disciplinary or method choices	Qualitative research	143	25.5%	74	24.8%	34	18.1%
	Quantitative research	72	12.9%	12	4.0%	26	13.8%
	Theoretical analysis	65	11.6%	32	10.7%	12	6.4%
	Sociological approaches	135	24.1%	62	20.8%	34	18.1%
	Political science	100	17.9%	80	26.8%	45	23.9%
	Psychological approaches	35	6.3%	32	10.7%	12	6.4%
	History	10	1.9%	6	2.0%	25	13.3%
Topic	Violence attack	137	24.5%	73	24.5%	33	17.6%
	Terrorism	125	22.3%	44	14.8%	54	28.7%
	Cyberterrorism[1]	117	20.9%	42	14.1%	16	8.5%
	Social networks	87	15.5%	11	3.7%	21	11.2%
	Conspiracy theory	55	9.8%	12	4.0%	26	13.8%
	Radicalization	22	3.9%	54	18.1%	8	4.3%
	Islam	11	2.0%	56	18.8%	24	12.8%
	Gender[2]	6	1.1%	6	2.0%	6	3.2%
	Selected occurrences	560		298		188	
Number	Number of eligible documents[3]	260		196		96	

1   Cyberterrorism is understood in the study to refer to the use of the Internet to orchestrate violent acts that result in or threaten the loss of life or significant bodily harm in order to achieve political gains through intimidation.
2   The processes of violent radicalization do not appear to be identical in gender. We have therefore sought research characterizing this difference according to gender.
3   On the basis of the "social media" and "radicalization" criteria, scientific articles have a serious methodological basis.

In order to identify the contents of consulted documents, we indexed each work in its related field. We refined this approach by an indexing of keywords used either in the title or in the abstract for each of the three languages.

Figures 3 to 5 below show that political science and sociology are the most prevalent sources of literature on social media and radicalization. Sociological studies are more dominant in English, while the research outputs in Arabic and French mostly stem from political sciences.

Figure 3. Quantitative distribution of disciplines in the English references
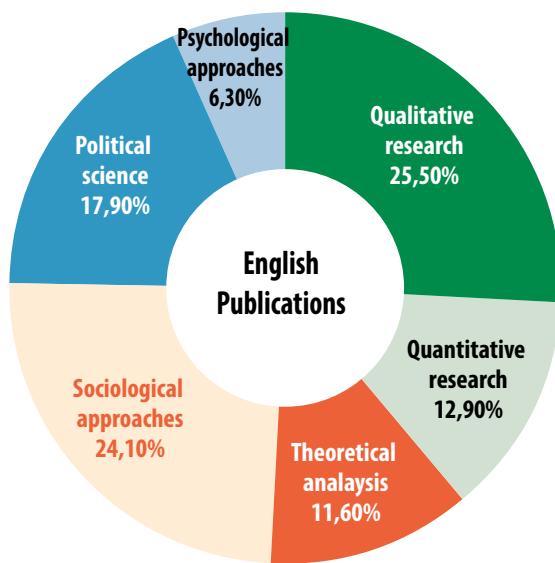
Figure 4. Quantitative distribution of disciplines in French references
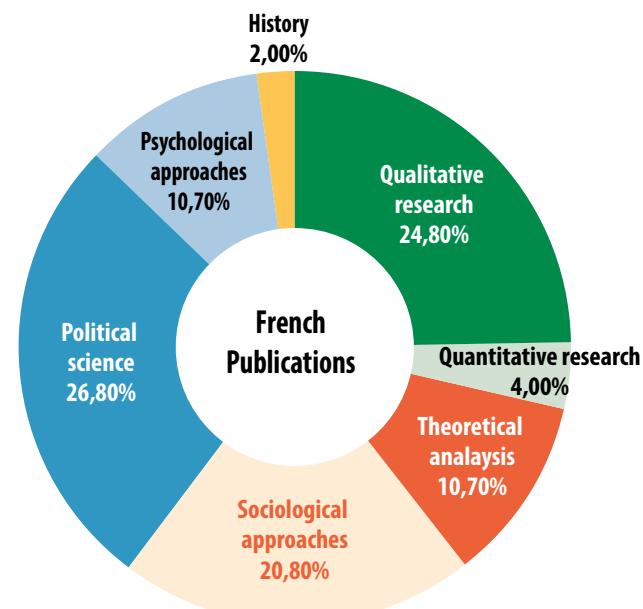
Figure 5. Quantitative distribution of disciplines in Arabic references
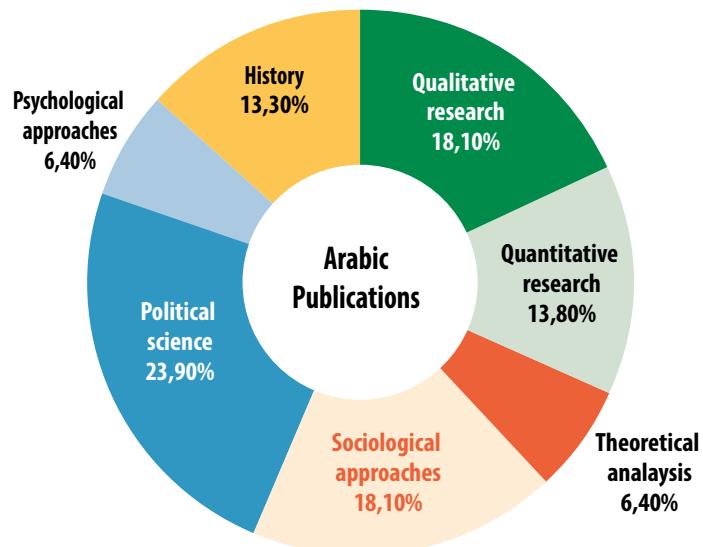
Figures 6 to 8 below show that the overall topics were homogeneous across languages with a clear prevalence of themes related to terrorism and violent or dramatic consequences (46% English – 39 % French – 43% Arabic).

Figure 6. Quantitative distribution of themes in English references

Figure 6. Quantitative distribution of themes in English references
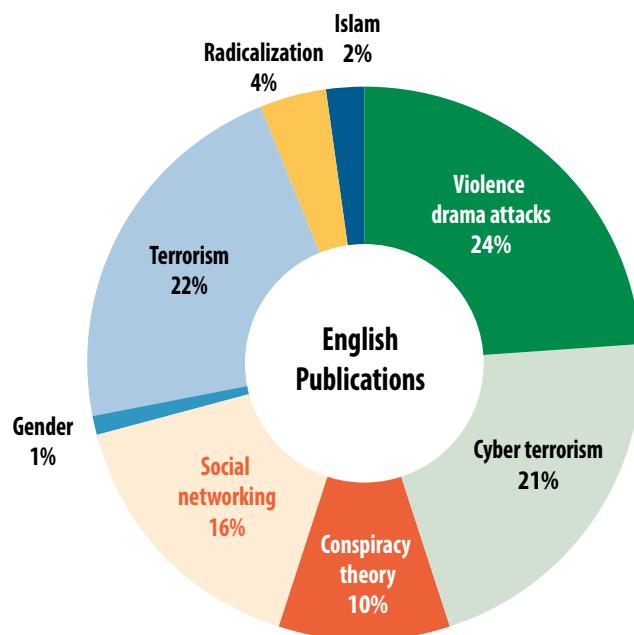
Figure 7. Quantitative distribution of themes in French references

French Publications

- Islam 19%
- Violence drama attacks 24%
- Cyber terrorism 14%
- Conspiracy theory 14%
- Social networking
- Gender 1%
- Terrorism 15%
- Radicalization 18%
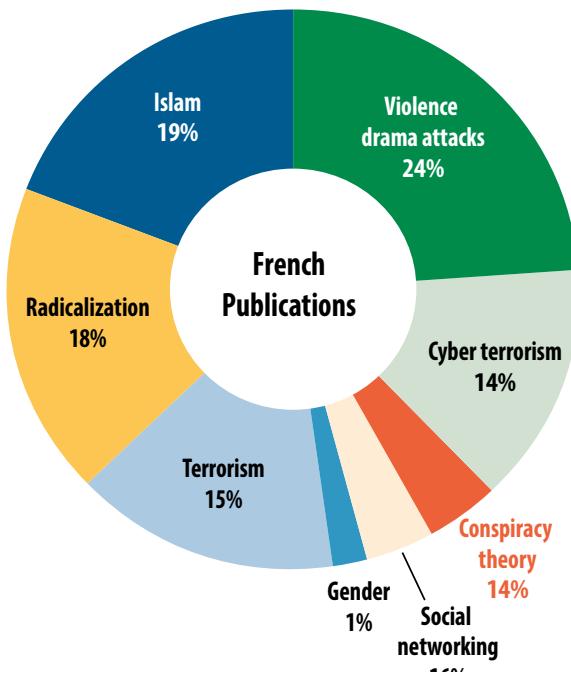
Figure 8. Quantitative distribution of themes in Arabic references

Arabic Publications

- Radicalization 5%
- Islam 9%
- Violence drama attacks 12%
- Cyber terrorism 15%
- Conspiracy theory 6%
- Social networking 21%
- Gender 1%
- Terrorism 31%
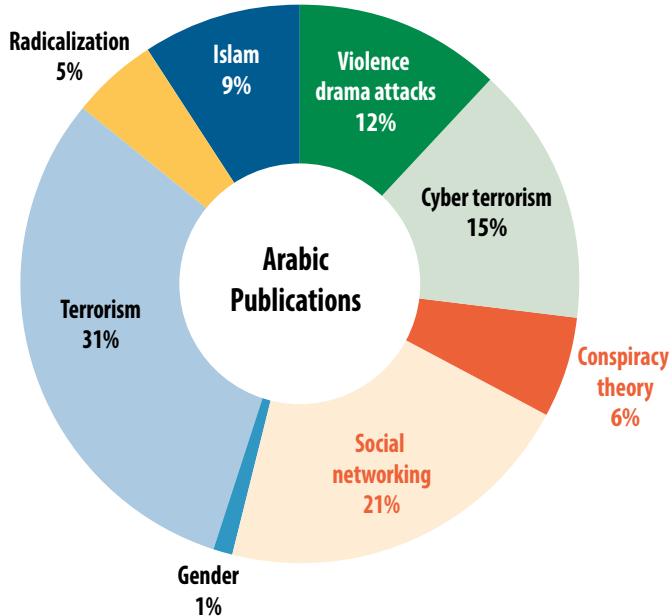
Second level aggregations show some differences across languages. For example, English and Arabic literature focuses more on social media and terrorism as well as the effects of terrorist policies within social networks (16% English – 4% French – 21% Arabic) as compared to French literature (47% English – 22% French – 43% Arabic). The issue of cyber-terrorism and the methods of fighting against terrorist communications (censorship, discourse analysis, counter-discourse) is equivalent across the three publication languages (21% English – 14% French – 15% Arabic). Very few identified French and Arabic studies focus on processes of indoctrination and radicalization (4% English – 18% French – 5% Arabic), or topics such as Islam, Islamism, Salafism (2% English – 19% French – 9% Arabic). We see that francophone journals put more emphasis on studies of religious radicalization and they perceive of radicalization as a procedure for mental control of young people. The issue of gender is under-investigated in all three languages (1% English – 2 % French – 1% Arabic).

1.3. Mapping

Figures 9 and 10 show that English is the dominant language of publication with more than 50% of literature on radicalization and 51% of publication on radicalization and social media (18% French and 10% German). We note that Russia publishes 10% of research in the field on terrorism, but only 2% on the topic of radicalization and social media. The predominance of English publications also stems from the fact that Portuguese-speaking and Asian countries, among other countries, publish predominantly in English.

Figure 9. Map of publications by language (themes radicalization and terrorism)
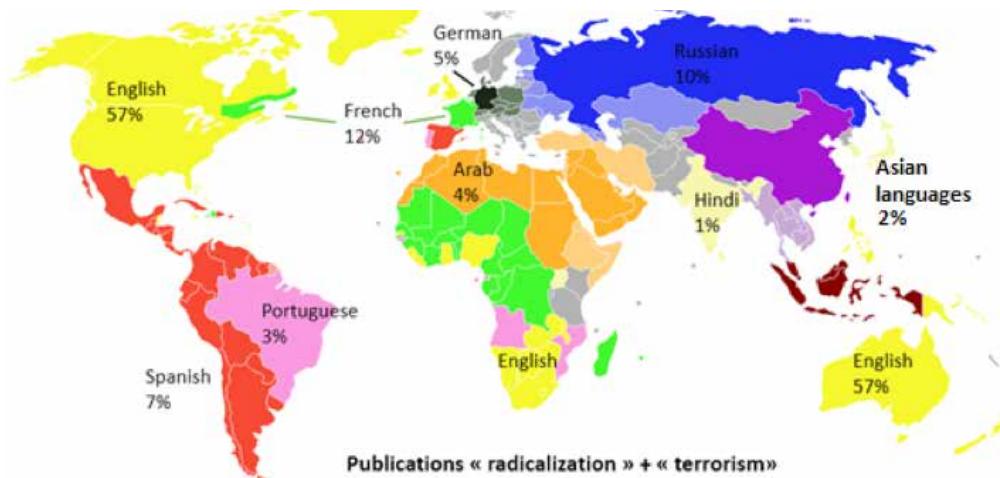
Figure 10. Map of publications by publishing language (themes radicalization and social media)

Publications « Social media » + « radicalization »

The following conclusions can also be extracted from the mapping of available literature:

➥ The quantitative studies are still rare (17.3% English – 6.1% French – 13.8% Arabic).

➥ The bulk of empirical research is based on qualitative studies, which most are case analyses or interviews with radicalized individuals (38.5% English – 33.2% French – 18.1% Arabic).

➥ Historical approaches (1.9% English – 3.1 % French – 13.3% Arabic) are very few. We notice the important role of such research in the Arab world and in flagship universities in the study of terrorism.

➥ Psychological approaches studies (13.5% English – 16.3% French – 6.4% Arabic) focus on the impact of terrorism on the victims, the psychological effects of recruitment on conspiracy theories and practices of deradicalization or citizen integration of individuals leaving terrorism.

APPENDIX 2.
MAPPING OF AUTHORS AND LITERATURE ON RADICALIZATION AND SOCIAL MEDIA

2.1 Mapping of researchers

We identified the country of work of the researchers based on their university or research center affiliation. Our database includes 679 authors. Figure 11 and Table 3 show the breakdown by geographical area:

Figure 11. Mapping by continents
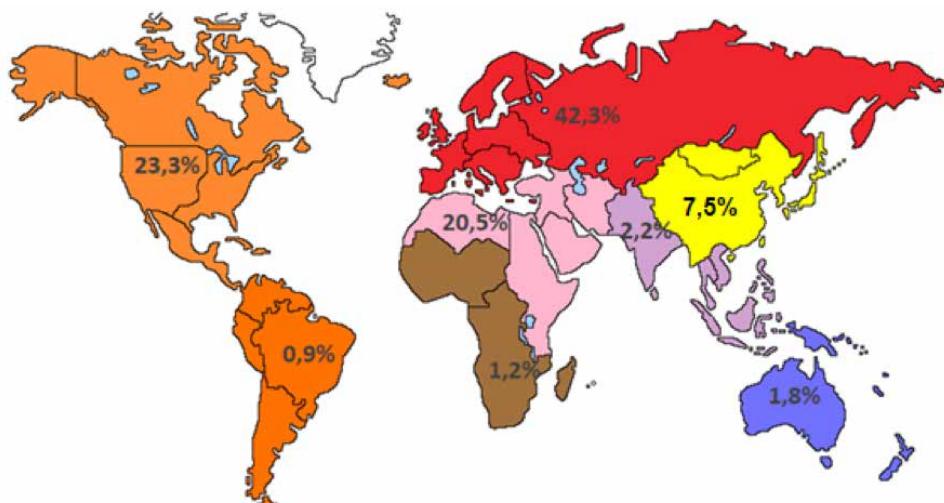
Table 3. Researcher geographical area

North America	158
Central and Latin America	6
Asia	69
Europe	287
Arab world	139
Africa	8
Australia	12
	779

Table 4 below shows that the predominant poles of research in Europe are situated in France and the United Kingdom.

Table 4. European countries

European countries	
Germany	14
Belgium	12
Denmark	1
France	112
Ireland	8
Italy	14
Norway	5
Netherlands	5
Poland	6
Portugal	3
Romania	2
UK	80
Russia	4
Spain	4
Sweden	4
Switzerland	10

The distribution is equal for Northern Europe and Southern Europe (151 and 135), with predominantly 179 authors linked to institutions in Euro-Mediterranean countries.

Figure 12. Mapping by geographical zone
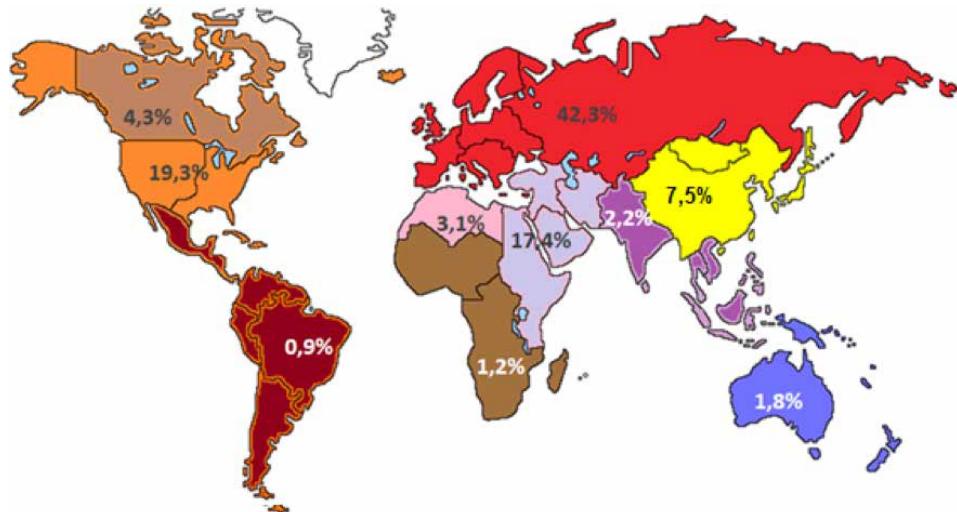
North Africa and the Middle East represent 20,5 % of authors on radicalization. We can note that authors linked to institutions in the Arab world mostly publish in English or French, rather than Arabic.

2.2 Research centers and institutions

Our review included numerous research centers, think tanks and institutions that have published during the review search on radicalization and social media. This list is not exhaustive but allows the reader to visualize many of the centers, the universities, and the institutions active in this field. The full list of the 364 centers can be found in Appendix 3.

Table 5. Distribution of centers by region

	Number	%
North America	128	35.2
Latin America	4	1.1
Asia	35	9.6
Europe	150	41.2
Arab world	36	9.9
Africa	3	0.8
Australia	8	2.2
Total	**364**	

Of the 364 research centers consulted, 41.2% are in Europe, followed by North America (United States with 28.3% and Canada with 6.9%). The Arab world follows in third position with 9.9% of research structures. Table 6 shows that more than 42 countries around the world currently include research centers on radicalization and terrorism and social media.

Table 6. Reserch centers by country

Country	Number	%
USA	103	28.3
France	54	14.8
UK	48	13.2
Canada	25	6.9
China	18	4.9
Germany	9	2.5
Australia	8	2.2
India	7	1.9
Israel	7	1.9
Italy	7	1.9
Belgium	5	1.4
Ireland	5	1.4
Algeria	4	1.1
Egypt	4	1.1
Norway	4	1.1
Tunisia	4	1.1
United Arab Emirates	4	1.1
Jordan	3	0.8
Netherlands	3	0.8
Poland	3	0.8
Spain	3	0.8
Qatar	3	0.8
Singapore	3	0.8
Sweden	3	0.8
Switzerland	3	0.8
Turkey	3	0.8
Brazil	2	0.5
Lebanon	2	0.5
South Africa	2	0.5
Pakistan	2	0.5
Portugal	2	0.5
Austria	1	0.3
Chile	1	0.3
Colombia	1	0.3
Denmark	1	0.3
Iraq	1	0.3
Iran	1	0.3
Japan	1	0.3
Malaysia	1	0.3
Mexico	1	0.3
Nigeria	1	0.3
Sri Lanka	1	0.3
Total	**364**	

APPENDIX 3.
THE CENTERS OR INSTITUTIONS EXAMINED IN THIS RESEARCH: BREAKDOWN BY COUNTRY

Algeria	African Centre for the Study & Research on Terrorism, ACRST
	National School of Administration, Algiers
	University of Oran
Australia	Alfred Deakin Institute
	ARC Centre for Excellence in Policing and Security
	Centre for International Security Studies, University of Sydney
	MIT Media Lab/ Data61 – CSIRO enquiries
	The University of Adelaide
	University of South Australia
	University of Melbourne
	University of Daekin
	Univeristy of Queensland
Austria	Graz University
	The Austrian Institute for International Affairs
Belgium	Department of Penal law and Criminology, Ghent University
	ESISC (European Strategic Intelligence and Security Center)
	Faculty of Economics, Social and Political Sciences of the Catholic University of Louvain
	Political Sciences and International Relations of the Free University of Brussels
	University of Liège
Brazil	Federal University of Pernambuco
	University of São Paulo

Canada	Canadian Government
	Center for the Prevention of Radicalization leading to Violence
	Centre for Military, Security and Strategic Studies, Calgary
	Interuniversity Research Center on Communication, Information and Society
	Department of Political Science, University of Windsor
	Faculty of Criminology, Justice and Policy Studies, University of Ontario
	International Center for the Prevention of Crime
	Interuniversity Research Center on the International Relations of Canada and Quebec
	International Center for Comparative Criminology (CICC) of the University of Montreal
	International Institute for Radicalization and Security Studies / Think Tank Laval University
	National Institute for Scientific Research-INRS / Center Urbanisation Culture Société
	PLURIRADICAL, University of Montreal
	Queen's University, Kingston, Ontaria
	Raoul Dandurand Chair of Strategic and Diplomatic Studies, UQAM
	School of Criminology, University of Montreal
	SERENE-RISC, University of Montreal
	SHERPA-RAPS / CIUSSS-Center West of the Island of Montreal
	School of Computing, Simon Fraser University
	UQAM, Faculty of Human Sciences, Department of Sociology
	UQAM, International Relations
	Université Laval, Department of Political Science
	University of Calgary
	University of Toronto
	45thNorth.ca / Independent Information Site
Chile	Institute of Humanistic Studies Juan Ignacio Molina of the University of Talca
China	Academy of Criminal Laws, Beijing Normal University
	CASS-Institute of World Religions
	CASS-National Institute of International Strategy
	CASS- Institute of West Asian and African Studies
	China University of Political Science and Law
	China Muslim
	Chinese Academy of Social Sciences (CASS)- Research Centers of Russia, Eastern Europe and Central Asia
	College of Marxism, Xinjiang University/ Heibei United University
	Institute of South Asian Studies (ISAS), Sichuan University, China
	Middle East Studies Institute, Shanghai International Studies University
	Law Institute, Tianjin Academy of Social Sciences

	Lanzhou University – Institute of Central Asian Studies
	Public Security University of China
	Pu Shi Institute for Social Science
	People's Public Security University of China
	Peking University – Institute of International Relations
	Renmin University of China- School of Law
	Shaanxi Normal University
	Sam Nunn School of International Affairs
	Shanghai International Studies University – Institute of Middle East Studies
	School of Public Administration, Zhengzhou University
	School of International Relations and Public Affairs, Fudan University
	University of Zhejiang
	University of Sun Yat-sen
	University of Political Science and Law of East China
	University of Lanzhou
	University of Jilin
	Yunnan Police College
	Yan Shan University
	Wuhan University –School of Law
	Xinjiang Academy of Social Sciences – Institute of Religious Studies
	Xinjiang Normal University
	Xinjiang University
Colombia	Militar University of New Granada
Denmark	Counterterrorism Res. Lab, Univ of Southern Denmark, Odense
Egypt	Arab Center for Research & Studies, Cairo
	Al Azhar, Observatory of Islamization
	Observatory of the Tatarfi Fatwas and Extremist Thought, Dar al-iftâ'a, Cairo
	Rawabet Center – Think Tank
Europe	European Commission's Expert Group on Violent Radicalization
France	Alliance Athena
	Bouzar Expertises
	CIEM/ ECCR/ ECREA
	Chair of Contemporary History of the Arab World, Collège de France
	Center for the Study of Social Movements of the School of Advanced Studies in Social Sciences
	Center for International Studies and Research, Sciences Po
	Center for Security Studies at Ifri
	Center for Interdisciplinary Studies of Religious Facts (CEIFR) (EHESS)
	Center for Research on Terrorism

Center for the Study of India and South Asia (CEIAS) of EHESS
Center for Political Research of the Sorbonne
CREM, Paul Verlaine-Metz University
CEVIPOL – Ministry of the Interior
CEIS Strategic Intelligence – Think tank
Council of Europe Steering Committee for Human Rights
Center for Interdisciplinary Studies of Religious Facts (National Center for Scientific Research, Paris)
Group of Sociology of Religions and Secularism (GSRL) in Paris
GREMMO Lyon
GERRICO
Faculty of Law of Grenoble
French Jewish Union for Peace – Think Tank
French Institute of the Near East
French Institute of Geopolitics (University Paris VIII)
French Institute of Geopolitics, Paris VIII University, Castex Chair in e-strategy
French Institute of International Relations
French Institute of the Near East (IFPO) in Amman
Interdisciplinary laboratory of cultures and societies, Nice
International Observatory of Geopolitics
Institute for Interdisciplinary Research in the Social Sciences (IRISSO, UMR CNRS 7170)
Institute of Islamic Studies and Societies of the Muslim World
Institute for Research for Development (IRD)
Judicial Protection of Youth (Ministry of Justice)
Mediapart
National Institute for Advanced Studies in Security and Justice
National Institute of Oriental Languages and Civilizations
National Institute of Higher Studies of Security and Justice
National Assembly
National Institute of Oriental Languages and Civilizations
Political Science Institute of Political Studies of Strasbourg
Radicalization Observatory (FMSH-EHESS)
Res Publica Foundation – Think Tank
Research Institute on Contemporary Southeast Asia
Sorbonne Nouvelle University
Sciences-Po Lyon
Télécom SudParis
University Paris 7-Diderot
University of Versailles Saint Quentin CESDIP

	University Paris 8
	University Paris-1 Panthéon-Sorbonne
	University Paris 4 Paris-Sorbonne
	University of Nice Sophia-Antipolis
	University of Amiens
	University of Paris-Descartes
	University of Cergy-Pontoise
	University of Grenoble II
	University of Toulouse – Jean Jaurès
Germany	Center for Technology and Society of the Technical University of Berlin University of Munich
	Data travel agency – ThinkTank
	Department of International Policies, University of the German Armed Forces of Munich
	German Federal Court of Justice
	Institute for Media and Communication Science, Ilmenau University of Technology
	Leibniz Institute for Knowledge Media
	Research Forum on Public Safety and Security, Freie Universität Berlin
India	Alexander von Humboldt Foundation
	Computer Science, Maulana Azad National Institute of Technology, Bhopal
	Department of CSE, Muffakham Jah College of Engineering & Technology, Banjara Hills, Hyderabad
	Department of Information & Communication Technology, Manipal University, Manipal
	Institute of Peace and Conflict Studies (IPCS)
	Indraprastha Institute of Information Technology, Delhi
	Sophion Bioscience
	Research Committee on Economy and polity, Indian Sociological Society
Indonesia	Syarif Hidayatullah State Islamic University
Iraq	Al-Nahrain Center for Strategic Studies
Ireland	Centre for Sensor Web Technologies and 2School of Law and Government
	Dublin City University
	Institute of International and Euroipean affairs, Dublin/ Megazyme
	International Ireland School of Law & Government, Dublin City University
	Waterford Institute of Technology

Israel	Bar-Ilan University
	Department of Communication at Haifa University
	International Institute for Counter-Terrorism
	Jewish Institute for National Security Affairs
	The Information School at University of Washington and the Interdisciplinary Center Herzliya
	Tel Aviv University.
	University of Haifa
Italy	Emerging Crimes Unit, UNICRI
	Department of Politics and History University of Bologna
	Department of Philosophy, University of Turin
	Department of Psychology, University of Bari
	University of Padua
	University of Turin
	European University Institute of Florence
Japan	MacArthur Foundation
	Shingetsu Institute for the Study of Japanese Islamic Relations in Kitakyushu
	Waseda University – School of international Liberal Studies
Jordan	Centre for the Prevention of Radicalization: De Weg Naar
	Friedrich Ebert Stiftung
Lebanon	Carnegie Middle East Center
	Center of Civilization for the Development of Islamic Thought
Malaysia	Smart Digital Community Research Alliance UTM
	Institute of Strategic and International Studies
Mexico	Universidad de Guadalajara
Netherlands	Centre for Terrorism and Counterterrorism, Leiden University
	Free University Amsterdam
	Risbo, Rotterdam
Nigeria	Department of Geography, University of Ibadan, Ibadan
Norway	Norwegian Centre for Child Research
	Norwegian defense research establishment
	Norwegian Defense
	NLA School of Religion, Education and Intercultural Studies in Bergen
	Research Center TerrorismResearch Center – Norwegian Defense Research Establishment (FFI)
Pakistan	University of Punjab, Lahore
	Asia center at the U.S. Institute of Peace
Philippines	Ateneo de Davao University – Institute for Islamic Identities and Dialogue in South East Asia

Portugal	University of Lisbon
	Universidade Lusófona de Humanidades e Tecnologias, Lisbon
Qatar	Al-Jazeera Center for Studies
	Arab and International Relation Forum
	Forum of Arabic and International Relations
Singapore	Centre of Excellence for National Security/ Nanyang Technological University
	International Centre for Political Violence and Terrorism Research
	IEEE Conference on Technologies for Homeland Security
South Africa	Department of Information Science of the University of South Africa
	Council for Scientific and Industrial Research
Spain	Department of Arab and Islamic Studies of the Autonomous University of Madrid
	Faculty of Psychology, University of Granada
	IE School of Communication, IE University
	University of Navarra
Sri Lanka	S. Rajaratnam School of International Studies
Sweden	Stockholm University
	Karlstad University, Karlstad, Sweden
	Swedish Defence Research Agency (FOI), Stockholm, Sweden
Switzerland	University of Geneva
	Swiss Academy of Technical Sciences (SATW)
	Graduate Institute of International and Development Studies
Tunisia	Research Institute on Contemporary Maghreb
	National Center for Research & Opinion Poll
	Tunisian Center for Strategic Studies
Turkey	Civil Defence of Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus
	Centre of Excellence Defence Against Terrorism – NATO
UK	Center for research and evidence on security threat
	Centre for Policy Studies
	Center for International Education and Research – University of Birmingham
	Center for Persian Gulf Studies at the University of Exeter
	Center for Strategic and Diplomatic Studies
	Center for Criminal Justice Studies
	COPINE Research, University of Edinburg
	Cranfield University
	Cybercrime Research Institute
	Crime and Security Research, University of East Anglia
	Department of Media and Communications – LSE
	Departments of History at Royal Holloway, University of London
	Edinburgh Napier University

	The Handa Centre for the Study of Terrorism and Political Violence
	Institute for Strategic Dialogue
	Institute of Arab and Islamic Studies
	International Security Programme, Chatham House
	ICSR at King's College London
	International Centre for the Study of Radicalization King's College London
	Institute for Middle East Studies
	International Institute for Strategic Studies (IISS)
	King's College of London
	Legatum Institute
	Lancaster University, PRP
	Plymouth University – School of Law, Criminology and Government
	Queen Mary University of London
	Muslim Council of Britain
	National Center for the Analysis of Violent Crime
	Newcastle University, Politics Department
	School of Business and Management
	Sheffield Hallam University/ Nottingham Trent University
	Radicalization Awareness Network (RAN)
	St Anthony's College, Oxford University
	Tony Blair Faith Foundation
	University College London
	University Robert Gordon, (UK) Department of Applied Social Studies
	University of Glasgow
	University of St. Andrews
	University of London
	Quilliam Foundation
	Violence and Extremism Programme, Demos
	WACP/ Cultural Consultation Service at QMUL
United Arab Emirates	King Saud University, Riyadh
	Al Mesbar Studies & Research Centre
	Future Centre for Advanced Research & Studies
	Hedaya and The International Centre for Counter Terrorism
USA	Africa Center for Strategic Studies (ACSS)
	Alliance International University
	American Academy of Political and Social Science – Think Tank
	American Military University, West Virginia
	American Society of Criminology – Think Tank
	Annenberg School for Communication, University of Pennsylvania

Arizona State University
Artificial Intelligence Lab, University of Arizona Tucson
Association of Internet Researchers - Think Tank
Bloomsburg University of Pennsylvania
Bowling Green State University
California State University, San Bernardino
California State University, Stanislaus
Carnegie Mellon University
Center for International Strategy, Sam Nunn School of International Affairs
Center for the Study of Hate and Extremism, California State University, San Bernardino
College of Information Science and Technology Drexel University, Philadelphia
Combating Terrorism Center, Westpoint
Council on Foreign Relations – Think Tank
Davidson College, Caroline du Nord
Department des Sciences Politiques, Shippensburg University
Department of Library Science, Clarion University
Department of Management and Communication Systems, University of Arizona
Department of Management Information Systems, University of Arizona
Department of Psychology, University of Alabama
Department of Sociology Southern Illinois University
Dickey Center for International Understanding – Dartmouth College
Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs – University of Richemond
Economic Crime and Cybersecurity Institute of Utica College
Estlow International Center for Journalism and New Media at the University of Denver
Foreign Policy Research Institute – Think tank
George Washington University
Georgetown University
Georgetown University
Hoover Institution, Stanford University
House Committee for Homeland Security – U.S. House of Representatives
Hunter College
Indiana University of Pennsylvania
International Society of Political Psychology – Think Tank
Kenyon College Department of Sociology
Middle East Forum – Think Tank
Middle East Institute in Washington, D.C.

Montana State University
National Intelligence Council (GERP) – US Governement
Naval Postgraduate School
New York University-SCPS Division
Nixon Center – Think Tank
North central University
Northwestern University, Evanston
Ofc of Naval Research US governement
Ohio State University
Pennsylvania State University
Pepperdine University School of Law / Journal of International Law
Political Research Associates (PRA) – Think Tank
Prescott College of Arts & Sciences
RAND Corporation – Think Tank
Roosevelt University
SAIC Corporate Headquarters
Sanford School of Public Policy
Simon Wiesenthal Center's - Think Tank
Society for the Scientific Study of Religion
Southern Illinois University
Southern Illinois University Carbondale
Stanford Artificial Intelligence Laboratory
Stanford University
Tactical Inf. Fusion Branch, US Army Res. Lab., Aberdeen Proving Ground, MD
Texas Tech University Lubbock, Texas
The American Society of Criminology
The International Center for the Study of Violent Extremism (ICSVE) – Think Tank
The University of Texas at El Paso
The Washington Institute
Think Strategies – Think Tank
Think Tank National Intelligence Council
U.S. Naval War College Center for Cyber Conflict Studies (C3S)
University of Arkansas
University of California Hastings College of the Law
University of Clayton
University of Denver and the Iliff School of Theology
University of Florida
University of Maryland Baltimore County, Baltimore, MD
University of Maryland Francis King Carey School of Law

University of Massachusetts Lowell, Center for Terrorism and Security Studies
University of Michigan, and the John Jay College of Criminal Justice
University of Missouri
University of Nebraska – Lincoln
University of North Dakota Grand Forks, North Dakota
University of Oklahoma
University of Pennsylvania
University of South Florida
University of Texas
University of Texas at Austin
University of Wisconsin – Madison
US Department of Homeland Security
USC Center of public democracy – Think Tank
Walden University
Washington Institute for Near East Policy – Think Tank
Waterford Institute of Technology
Western Washington University

APPENDIX 4.
QUÉBEC'S CALL FOR ACTION

Québec's Call for Action[26] was released at the end of the Québec-UNESCO Conference entitled "Internet and the radicalization of youth: preventing, acting and living together." This landmark document of the Conference stemmed from the deliberations of 500 participants from over 70 countries and urges citizens and the international community to take action to fight and prevent radicalization.

Concerned by the demonstrations of intolerance and violent extremism threatening the efforts made on a national and an international scale in favour of peace, security, protection and promotion of human rights, the rule of law and sustainable development;

Considering that radicalization leading to violence is an evolving, multi-facetted global phenomenon, which is not associated with a single religion, ideology or people;

Highlighting that the prevention of radicalization leading to violence is a common responsibility in respect of the principles and values enshrined in numerous international human rights instruments

Answering the call of the Secretary-General of the United Nations and his Plan of Action to Prevent Violent Extremism and committed to its implementation;

Reaffirming the importance of a multidimensional approach to analyze and prevent the root causes of radicalization leading to violence;

Concerned about the dissemination of violent extremist ideas using new means of communication, which are exploited for the purposes of extremist propaganda, recruitment by radical groups and incitement to commit violent acts motivated by hate and intolerance;

Emphasizing that new technologies are also a tool for preventing radicalization leading to violence, especially by making it possible to propose a counternarrative on the Internet to encourage citizen education and critical thinking, in support of human rights, dialogue, mutual understanding and tolerance;

Reaffirming the relevance of working to fully achieve the sustainable development goals adopted under the authority of the United Nations as part of the 2030 Agenda.

Call on the international community to cooperate and strengthen efforts to prevent youth radicalization and fight against violent extremism in all its forms;

---

26   Agreed by the international conference 'Internet and the Radicalization of Youth: Preventing, Acting and Living Together', December 2016, organised by Quebec and UNESCO/IFAP. https://www.agora-inscription.ca/UNESCO-QUEBEC/en/qc-call

Encourage all governments to implement measures for preventing radicalization leading to violence and to elaborate national policies or action plans dedicated to this end;

Recommend to question the narratives and ideas on which extremist groups are founded through the development of consistent counternarratives and through inclusive education on information and communications technologies which emphasizes the development of critical thinking, tolerance and respect for human rights;

Encourage all stakeholders to facilitate access and use of the Internet and new communication and information technologies as tools and platforms that help prevent radicalization and violent extremism, condemn violence and hate speech, and promote inclusion, equality and intercultural dialogue;

Invite governments to engage and empower youth to lead new digital projects in favour of peace, tolerance and mutual understanding and to spread the message far and wide.

APPENDIX 5.
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SELECTED WORKS PUBLISHED IN ENGLISH

Adams, J., & Roscigno, V-J. (2005). White Supremacists, Oppositional Culture and the World Wide Web. *Social Forces, 84*(2), 759-778.

Adams, Josh, & Roscigno, Vincent. (2004/08/14/2004 Annual Meeting, San Francisco). White Supremacists, Oppositional Culture, and the World Wide Web.

Agarwal, S., & Sureka, A. (2015). Topic-Specific YouTube Crawling to Detect Online Radicalization Databases in Networked Information Systems, *Lecture notes in computer sciences, 8999*, pp. 133-151.

Agarwal, S., & Sureka, A. (2015). Using KNN and SVM Based One-Class Classifier for Detecting Online Radicalization on Twitter Distributed Computing and Internet Technology, *Lecture notes in computer sciences, 8956*, pp. 431-442.

Aistrope, T. (2016). Social media and counterterrorism strategy. *Australian Journal of International Affairs*, *70*(2), 121-138.

Akinwumi, A- E. (2006). The Banality of the ImMEDIAte Spectacle: Globalization, Terrorism, Radical Cultural Denigration, and the Condition of Hollowity, *International journal of Baurbrillard Studies, 3*: Bishop's University.

Alarid, M. (2016). Recruitment and Radicalization: The Role of Social Media and New Technology. *Center for Complex Operations*, Washington, USA.

Alghamdi, H-M., & Selamat, A. (2012, November). Topic Detections in Arabic Dark Websites Using Improved Vector Space Model. 4th Conference on Data Mining and Optimization (Dmo), Langkawi, Malaysia.

Ali, M-M., Mohammed, K- M., & Rajamani, L. (2014). Framework for Surveillance of Instant Messages in Instant messengers and Social neworking sites using Data Mining and Ontology, *Ieee Students' Technology Symposium*, pp. 297-302.

Al-Rawi, Ahmed. (2016). Digital Media Literacy and its Role in Countering Division and Enhancing National Identity in the Arab World, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 291-297.

Al-Rowaily, K., Abulaish, M., Haldar, N. Al-H., & Al-Rubaian, M. (2015). BiSAL – A bilingual sentiment analysis lexicon to analyze Dark Web forums for cyber security. *Digital Investigation, 14*, 53-62.

Amble, John Curtis. (2012). Combating terrorism in the new media environment. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 35*(5), 339-353.

Ammerman, F. W. (2012). A Case Study Exploration of Islamic Radicalization in America: Interpretations for Corporate Risk Management. (3519947 Ph.D.), Northcentral University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1030973387?accountid=10246

Andre, V. (2012). Patani Militant Propaganda Dissemination and Radicalization. *Asian Security, 8*(1), 27-53. doi: 10.1080/14799855.2012.669207

Andre, Virginie. (2014). The Janus Face of New Media Propaganda: The Case of Patani Neojihadist YouTube Warfare and Its Islamophobic Effect on Cyber-Actors. Islam & Christian-Muslim Relations, 25(3), 335-356.

Argomaniz, Javier. (2015). European Union responses to terrorist use of the Internet. Cooperation & Conflict, 50(2), 250-268.

Atran, Scott, & Sageman, Marc. Connecting the dots. Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, 62(4), 68-68.

Awan, Akin N. (2007). Virtual jihadist media. European Journal of Cultural Studies, 10(3), 389-408.

Baines, Paul R., O'Shaughnessy, Nicholas J., Moloney, Kevin, Richards, Barry, Butler, Sara, & Gill, Mark. (2010). The dark side of political marketing Islamist propaganda, Reversal Theory and British Muslims. European Journal of Marketing, 44(3-4), 478-495.

Baker, Vicky. (2015). Social disturbance: From digital jihadis to hoaxes and propaganda, a look at how user-generated content lost its innocence. Index on Censorship, 44(1), 143-145.

Bardos, Gordon N. (2014). Jihad in the Balkans. World Affairs, 177(3), 73-79.

Barnett, Brett Aaron. (2005). Untangling the web of hate: Are online "Hate Sites" deserving of First Amendment protection? (3193670 Ph.D.), Bowling Green State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305028910?accountid=10246

Barzilai-Nahon, Karine, & Barzilai, Gad. (2005). Cultured Technology: The Internet and Religious Fundamentalism. Information Society, 21(1), 25-40.

Bates, Rodger, & Mooney, Mara. (2014). Distance Learning and Jihad: The Dark Side of the Force. Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration, 17(3).

Benson, David C. (2014). Why the Internet Is Not Increasing Terrorism. Security Studies, 23(2), 293-328.

Bermingham, Adam, Conway, Maura, McInerney, Lisa, O'Hare, Neil, & Smeaton, Alan F. (2009). Combining Social Network Analysis and Sentiment Analysis to Explore the Potential for Online Radicalization 2009 International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (pp. 231-236).

Bhui, Kamaldeep, & Ibrahim, Yasmin. (2013). Marketing the 'radical': Symbolic communication and persuasive technologies in jihadist websites. Transcultural Psychiatry, 50(2), 216-234.

Biddle, S. (2015, March 13). Reddit Is So Racist White Supremacists Are Using it to Recruit. Retrieved May 18, 2015, from http://gawker.com/reddit-is-so-racist-white-supremacists-areusing-it-to-1691162974

Bloom, Richard W. (2016). A bull market but whose bull is being gored? PsycCRITIQUES, 61(15).

Blumenfeld, Teri. (2012). Are Jihadists Crazy? Middle East Quarterly, 19(2), 3-13.

Bogomolov, T., & Chiera, B. (2013). A first approach to resolving ambiguity in hidden terrorist group detection in communications networks. 20th International Congress on Modelling and Simulation (Modsim2013), 120-126.

Boruch, R al. (2004). The Campbell Collaboration. Brief Treatment and Crisis Intervention Vol. 4 No. 3

Bosco, Francesca. (2013). Terrorist Use of the Internet Capacity Building in the Fight against Terrorism (Vol. 112, pp. 39-46).

Bowman-Grieve, Lorraine. (2009). Exploring ‚ÄúStormfront‚Äù: A Virtual Community of the Radical Right. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 32(11), 989-1007.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2004). Islamic Radicalism Online: The Moluccan Mission of the Laskar Jihad in Cyberspace. Australian Journal of Anthropology, 15(3), 267-285.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2004). Islamic radicalism online: The Moluccan mission of the Laskar Jihad in cyberspace (English). The Australian journal of anthropology, 15(3), 267-285.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2007). Religious Conflicts in Cyberage. Citizenship Studies, 11(4), 329-347

Brachman, Jarret M. (2006). High-Tech Terror: Al-Qaeda's Use of New Technology. Fletcher Forum of World Affairs, 30(2), 149-164.

Brachman, Jarret M., & Levine, Alix N. (2011). You Too Can Be Awlaki! Fletcher Forum of World Affairs, 35(1), 25-46.

Braddock, Kurt H. (2012). Fighting words: The persuasive effect of online extremist narratives on the radicalization process. (3534650 Ph.D.), The Pennsylvania State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1275924546?accountid=10246

Bradforrs A., Frenett R. (2015). Becoming Mulan?: Female Western Migrants to DAESH. Institute for Strategic Dialogue

Brown, Ian, & Korff, Douwe. (2009). Terrorism and the proportionality of Internet surveillance. European Journal of Criminology, 6(2), 119-134.

Bruce, Gregor. (2013). Intrinsic and External Factors and Influences on the Motivation of Suicide Attackers. Journal of Military & Veterans' Health, 21(3), 27-33.

Buckingham, D. (2008). Defining Digital Literacy. What do Young People Need to Know About Digital Media? C. Lankshear and M. Knobel (eds). *Digital Literacies: Concepts, Policies, and Practices.* Oxford: Peter Lang, 73-91

Burstow, Bonnie. (2003). Surviving and Thriving by Becoming More 'Groupuscular': The Case of the Heritage Front. Patterns of Prejudice, 37(4), 415-428.

Caiani, Manuela, & Parenti, Linda. (2011). The Spanish extreme right and the Internet. A extrema-direita espanhola e a internet., 46(201), 719-740.

Cavin, Susan. (2006). Theory of War Propaganda Technology: From WWII Radio to Video War Games. Paper presented at the Society for the Study of Social Problems. http://search.proquest.com/docview/61751812?accountid=10246

Cappello, M. and Chapman, M. (2016). Mapping of Media Literacy Practices and Actions in EU-28, Strasbourg: European Audiovisual Observatory.

Cardon, D., & Granjon, F. (2014). *Médiactivistes.* « Individualisation et auto-organisation ». Paris : Presses de Sciences Po 135-177.

Cebrian, Manuel, Torres, Manuel R., Huerta, Ramon, & Fowler, James H. (2013). Violent extremist group ecologies under stress. Scientific Reports, 3.

Celebi, Erdogan. (2010). Female Seperatism: The Role of Women in the PKK/KONGRA-GEL Terrorist Organization Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 105-112).

Celot, P (2014). *Media Literacy European Policy Recommendations*, EAVI, Brussels

Chao, En-Chieh. (2015). The-Truth-About-Islam.Com: Ordinary Theories of Racism and Cyber Islamophobia. Critical Sociology (Sage Publications, Ltd.), 41(1), 57-75.

Charvat, J. P. I. A. G. (2009). Cyber Terrorism: A New Dimension in Battlespace The Virtual Battlefield: Perspectives on Cyber Warfare (Vol. 3, pp. 77-87).

Chen, Hsinchun, Chung, Wingyan, Jialun, Q. I. N., Reid, Edna, Saqeman, Marc, & Weimann, Gabriel. (2008). Uncovering the Dark Web : A Case Study of Jihad on the Web (English). Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology (Print), 59 (8), 1347-1359.

Chen, Hsinchun, Thoms, Sven, & Fu, Tianjun. (2008). Cyber extremism in web 2.0: An exploratory study of international Jihadist groups Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 98-103).

Chen, Hsinchun. (2008). Sentiment and affect analysis of dark web forums: Measuring radicalization on the internet Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 104-109).

Chiluwa, Innocent, & Ajiboye, Esther. (2014). 'We Are after Ideals': A Critical Analysis of Ideology in the Tweets by Boko Haram. Global Media Journal : African Edition, 8(2), 318-346.

Chiluwa, I. (2015). Radicalist discourse: a study of the stances of Nigeria's Boko Haram and Somalia's Al Shabaab on Twitter. Journal of Multicultural Discourses, 10(2), 214-235.

Cohen, J. (2015). Digital Counterinsurgency. Foreign Affairs, 94(6), 52-58.

Cohen, Jessica, & Blanco, Jose Maria. (2016). Media Information and Literacy to Tackle Social Polarization in Europe, Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism, 299-311.

Conversi, D. (2012). Irresponsible Radicalization: Diasporas, Globalisation and Long-Distance Nationalism in the Digital Age. Journal of Ethnic & Migration Studies, 38(9), 1357-1379.

Conway, M. (2006). Reality bytes: cyber-terrorism and terrorist use of the Internet. (U221922 Ph.D.), Trinity College Dublin (University of Dublin) (Ireland), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301660701?accountid=10246

Conway, Maura, & McInerney, Lisa. (2008). Jihadi Video and Auto-radicalization: Evidence from an Exploratory YouTube Study Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 5376, pp. 108-118).

Conway, Maura. Terrorism and the Internet: New Media, A New Threat? Parliamentary Affairs, 59(2), 283-298.

Costa, C., Car V. and Papadimitriou, S. (2017). Good practices and emerging trends in Frau-Meigs D., Velez, I. and Flores Michel J. (eds). *MIL Public Policies in Europe: A Cross-Country Comparison*. London: Routledge.

Corman, S. R. (2011). Understanding the Role of Narratives in Extremist Strategic Communications. In: L. Fenstermacher and T. Leventhal (Eds.) *Countering Violent Extremism: Scientific Methods and Strategies*. Wright-Patterson AFB, OH: AF Research Laboratory, pp. 36–43.

Cornish, P., Lindley-French, J., & Yorke, C. (2011) *Strategic Communication and National Strategy: A Chatham House Report*. London: Royal Institute of International Affairs.

Corb, Abbee. (2015). Online hate and cyber-bigotry: A glance at our radicalized online world. In N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi, J. G. D. Grieve, N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi & J. G. D. Grieve (Eds.), The Routledge international handbook on hate crime. (pp. 306-317). New York, NY, US: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Crabill, Scott L. (2008). Hate on the Internet. Florida Communication Journal, 36(2), 1-15.

Crilley, Kathy. (2001). Information warfare: new battlefields terrorists, propaganda and the Internet (English). Aslib proceedings: New information perspectives, 53(7), 250-264.

Dagnes, Alison D. (2003). White noise: The political uses of Internet technology by right -wing extremist groups. (3110477 Ph.D.), University of Massachusetts Amherst, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305321662?accountid=10246

Daniels, Jessie. (2009). Cloaked websites: Propaganda, cyber-racism and epistemology in the digital era. New Media & Society, 11(5), 659-683.

Dartnell, M. (2005). Communicative practice and transgressive global politics: The d'ua of Sheikh Muhammed Al Mohaisany. First Monday, 10(7), 1-1.

Davies, Lynn. (2014). Interrupting Extremism by Creating Educative Turbulence. Curriculum Inquiry, 44(4), 450-468. doi: 10.1111/curi.12061

Davis, Diane. (2013). 2013: Questioning Digital Activism. Currents in Electronic Literacy, 1-1.

Demchak, Chris. (2006). Security Dilemmas and the Public Face of Covert Organizations: Tracking Terrorists in the Internet. Conference Papers – International Studies Association, 1.

Denning, Dorothy E. (2010). Terror's web: How the Internet is transforming terrorism. In Y. Jewkes, M. Yar, Y. Jewkes & M. Yar (Eds.), Handbook of Internet crime. (pp. 194-213). Devon, United Kingdom: Willan Publishing.

Der Derian, J. (2005). Imaging terror: logos, pathos and ethos. Third World Quarterly, 26(1), 23-37.

Du Preez, Madely. (2009). Hypermedia Seduction for Terrorist Recruiting. Online Information Review, 33(1), 208-209.

Earnhardt, R. (2014). Al-Qaeda's Media Strategy: Internet self- radicalization and counter-radicalization policies, Virginia Commonwealth U.: L. Douglas Wilder School of Government and Public Affairs

Eiffler, Sven. (2010). Jihadist Propaganda on the Internet: Impact and Challenges for the Security Community Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 71-79).

Ekman, Mattias. (2015). Online Islamophobia and the politics of fear: Manufacturing the green scare. Ethnic and Racial Studies, 38(11), 1986-2002.

Espeseth, Craig, Gibson, Jessica, Jones, Andy, & Goodman, Seymour. (2013). Terrorist Use of Communication Technology and Social Networks Technological Dimensions of Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 115, pp. 91-105).

EU kids on line (2014). http://www.lse.ac.uk/media%40lse/research/EUKidsOnline/EU%20Kids%20Online%20reports.aspx

Feilitzen, C. von, & Carlsson, U. (Eds.). (2004). *Promote or protect? Perspectives on media literacy and media regulations*. Göteborg: UNESCO International Clearinghouse on Children, Youth and Media, NORDICOM.

Feldman, Matthew. (2013). Comparative Lone Wolf Terrorism: Toward a Heuristic Definition. Democracy & Security, 9(3), 270-286

Fernandez, Alberto. (2015). "Contesting the Space" Adversarial Online Engagement as a Tool for Combating Violent Extremism. Soundings, 98(4), 488-500.

Fiddner, Mac. (2008). Medieval Ideology and 21st Century Technology: Al Qaeda, Terrorism and the Internet. Conference Papers. International Studies Association, 1-12.

Fink, N. C. & Barclay. J. (2013). *Mastering the Narrative: Counterterrorism Strategic Communication and the United Nations.* Washington, DC: Center on Global Counterterrorism Cooperation; http://globalcenter.org/wp-content/uploads/2013/03/Feb2013_CT_StratComm.pdf

Forest, James J. F. (2009). Influence Warfare and Modern Terrorism. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 10(1), 81-89.

Fuentes, Kendra M. (2016). Cyberterrorism: The use of social networking to recruit Westerners an informational guide for law enforcement agencies. (10107081 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791468583?accountid=10246

Frau-Meigs, D. (2011) Socialisation des jeunes et éducation aux médias. Du bon usage des contenus et comportements à risque. Toulouse : Erès.

Frau-Meigs, D. (2017). Media and Information Literacy (MIL): Taking the digital social turn for online freedoms and education 3.0. In H. Tumber & S. Waisbord (eds). The Routledge Companion to Media and Human Rights. London: Routledge.

Frau-Meigs, D. and Hibbard, L. (2016). Education 3.0 and Internet Governance: A new global alliance for children and young people's sustainable digital development. Global Commission on Internet Governance Series n°27. London: Chatham House.

Frau-Meigs, D. & Torrent, J. (Eds.). (2009). Mapping media education policies in the world: visions, programmes and challenges. NY: UN-Alliance of Civilizations.

Frau-Meigs, D., Velez, I. & Flores Michel, J. (eds). (2017). MIL Public Policies in Europe: A Cross Country Comparison. London: Routledge.

Gerbner, G. (1988). Violence and Terror in the Mass Media.Reports and Papers in Mass Communication, No. 102. Paris: Unesco, March 1988.

Gercke, Marco. (2012). Legal Responses to Terrorist Use of the Internet Enhancing Cooperation in Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 99, pp. 19-34).

Gercke, Marco. (2012). Strategy, Policy, Legislation, Prevention and Enforcement: Components of a Comprehensive Approach in the Fight against Cybercrime and Terrorist Use of the Internet Analyzing Different Dimensions and New Threats in Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 104, pp. 11-21).

Gerstenfeld, Phyllis B., Grant, Diana R., & Chau-Pu, Chiang. (2003). Hate Online: A Content Analysis of Extremist Internet Sites. Analyses of Social Issues & Public Policy, 3(1), 29-44.

Giacomello, Giampiero. (2004). Bangs for the Buck: A Cost-Benefit Analysis of Cyberterrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 27(5), 387-408.

Goolsby, Rebecca. (2008). The DoD encounters the blogosphere Social Computing, Behavioral Modeling and Prediction (pp. 25-25).

Graham, Roderick. (2016). Inter-ideological mingling: White extremist ideology entering the mainstream on Twitter. Sociological Spectrum, 36(1), 24-36.

Grausam, Robert. (2005). The language of Islamic fundamentalism (English). AAA. Arbeiten aus Anglistik und Amerikanistik, 30(1-2), 227-241.

Grieve, L. B. (2006). Terrorist supporters and the internet: an exploration of online 'virtual' communities. (U233172 Ph.D.), University College Cork (Ireland), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301640885?accountid=10246

Grizzle, Alton, & Perez Tornero, Jose Manuel. (2016). Media and Information Literacy Against Online Hate, Radical, and Extremist Content: Some Preliminary Research Findings in Relation to Youth and A Research Design, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Human Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 179-201.

Grizzle, Alton, & Torras Calvo, Maria Carme. (2013). Media and Information Literacy Policy and Strategy Guidelines

Gruenewald, Jeff, Chermak, Steven, & Freilich, Joshua D. (2013). Distinguishing 'Loner' Attacks from Other Domestic Extremist Violence. Criminology & Public Policy, 12(1), 65-91.

Guadagno, Rosanna E., Lankford, Adam, Muscanell, Nicole L., Okdie, Bradley M., & McCallum, Debra M. (2010). Social influence in the online recruitment of terrorists and terrorist sympathizers: Implications for social psychology research. Revue Internationale de Psychologie Sociale, 23(1), 25-56.

Gul, Sumeer, & Shueb, Sheikh. (2016). Twitter as a Mourning Dove for the Blooming Buds: An Analysis of Twitter's Reaction to Peshawar School Attack, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 237-247.

Gustavson, Aleta Top, & Sherkat, Darren E. (2004). Annual Meeting, San Francisco. The Ideological Structuring of White Supremacy on the Internet: Analyzing Network Size, Density, and Asymmetry.

Gut, Till. (2007). German Federal Court of Justice (Bundesgerichtshof,ÄîBGH), 3rd Criminal Senate. Journal of Criminal Law, 71(6), 491-496.

Hacohen, Eli. (2010). Digital Hate: Terror, Anti-Semitism and Racism on the Internet Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 3-6).

Hai, Nadia. (2012). The Rhetoric of Terrorism: A Rhetorical Analysis of "Inspire" Magazine. (MR91165 M.A.), University of Calgary (Canada), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1238289183?accountid=10246

Hale, W. Chris. (2012). Extremism on the World Wide Web: A research review. Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law & Society, 25(4), 343-356.

Harris, Candida, Rowbotham, Judith, & Stevenson, Kim. (2009). Truth, law and hate in the virtual marketplace of ideas: perspectives on the regulation of Internet content. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 155-184.

Harris, Candida, Rowbotham, Judith, & Stevenson, Kim. (2009). Truth, law and hate in the virtual marketplace of ideas: perspectives on the regulation of Internet content. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 155-184.

Hastings, Megan, & Rogerson, Kenneth. (2016). Battle of Narratives: Contesting ISIL's Propaganda with Social Media. Conference Papers -- Southern Political Science Association, 1-34.

Hayne, Spencer O. (2010). Borderless world, boundless threat: Online Jihadists and modern terrorism. (1483143 M.A.), Georgetown University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/818725727?accountid=10246

Hobbs, R. & Jensen, A. (2009). The Past, Present, and Future of Media Literacy Education. *Journal of Media Literacy Education*, 1(1).

Hoechsmann, M., & Poyntz, S. R. (2012). *Media literacies: a critical introduction*. Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Holbrook, Donald. (2015). A critical analysis of the role of the internet in the preparation and planning of acts of terrorism. Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict, 8(2), 121-133.

Holtz, Peter, Kronberger, Nicole, & Wagner, Wolfgang. (2012). Analyzing internet forums: A practical guide. Journal of Media Psychology: Theories, Methods, and Applications, 24(2), 55-66.

Homeland Security Institute. (2009). The internet as a terrorist tool for recruitment & radicalization of youth. U.S. Department of Homeland Security, Science and Technology Directorate

Jaitner, Margarita, & Kantola, Harry. (2014). Countering Threats – a Comprehensive Model for Utilization of Social Media for Security and law Enforcement Authorities. Proceedings of the 13th European Conference on Cyber Warfare and Security (Eccws-2014), 102-109.

Janbek, Dana M. (2010). The use of the Internet as a communication medium by extremist Muslim groups: A content analysis of web sites. (70), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2010-99031-321&site=ehost-live&scope=site Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Jerard, Jolene. (2011). Facing the Challenge of the Evolving Terrorist Threat Analysis and Strategies to Counter the Terrorism Threat (Vol. 89, pp. 63-77).

Jenkins, H. with Purushotma, R., Weigel, M., Clinton, K. & Robison, A.J. (2009). *Confronting the Challenges of Participatory Culture: Media Education for the 21st Century*. Cambridge: MIT and The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation.

Johansson, Fredrik, Kaati, Lisa, & Shrestha, Amendra. (2013). Detecting Multiple Aliases in Social Media. 2013 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 1004-1011.

Johnson, Jennifer L. (2011). Mobilizing Minutewomen: Gender, Cyberpower, and the New Nativist Movement. Research in Social Movements, Conflicts and Change(32), 137-161.

Johnson, Matthew. (2016). Bridging the Gap: Empowering Digital Citizens to Build Positive Online Communities, Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism, 87-94.

Jolls, Tessa, & Wilson, Carolyn. (2016). Youth Radicalization in Cyberspace: Enlisting Media and Information Literacy in the Battle for Hearts and Minds, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 167-178.

Kaplan, Jeffrey, Weinberg, Leonard, & Oleson, Ted. (2003). Dreams and realities in cyberspace: White Aryan Resistance and the World Church of the Creator. Patterns of Prejudice, 37(2), 139-155.

Kebbell, Mark R., & Porter, Louise. (2012). An intelligence assessment framework for identifying individuals at risk of committing acts of violent extremism against the West. Security Journal, 25(3), 212-228.

Kedma, Gabi, Guri, Mordehai, Sela, Tom, & Elovici, Yuval. (2013). Analyzing Users' Web Surfing Patterns to Trace Terrorists and Criminals 2013 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics: Big Data, Emergent Threats, and Decision-Making in Security Informatics (pp. 143-145).

Keenan, Catlyn Kenna. Behind the Doors of White Supremacy. (AAI3641997). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1718065829?accountid=10246

Khatib, Lina. (2003). Communicating Islamic Fundamentalism as Global Citizenship. Journal of Communication Inquiry, 27(4), 389.

Kirby, Aidan. (2007). The London bombers as "self-starters": A case study in indigenous radicalization and the emergence of autonomous cliques. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 30(5), 415-428.

Kirke, Xander. (2015). Violence and Political Myth: Radicalizing Believers in the Pages of Inspire Magazine. International Political Sociology, 9(4), 283-298.

Knox, Emily Goldberg. (2014). The Slippery Slope of Material Support Prosecutions: Social Media Support to Terrorists. Hastings Law Journal, 66(1), 295-329.

Kohlmann, Evan F. (2008). 'Homegrown' terrorists: Theory and cases in the war on terror's newest front. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 618(1), 95-109.

Kohlmann, Evan F. The Real Online Terrorist Threat. Foreign Affairs, 85(5), 115-124.

Koltuksuz, Ahmet. (2013). Use of Cyberspace and Technology by Terrorists Technological Dimensions of Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 115, pp. 106-109).

Kovacich, Gerald L., & Jones, Andy. (2002). What InfoSec Professionals Should Know About Information Warfare Tactics by Terrorists. Computers & Security, 21(2), 113.

Kramer, Rachel. (2003). Internet use by terrorists and content analysis of terrorist websites. (1421948 M.A.), University of London (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305248914?accountid=10246

Kirsten Drotner Divina Frau-Meigs, Niina Uusitalo, Sirkku Kotilainen (2017). The double bind of Media and Information Literacy: A critical view on public policy discourses about MIL in Frau-Meigs D., Velez, I. and Flores Michel J. (eds). *MIL Public Policies in Europe: A Cross-Country Comparison.* London: Routledge.

Kumar, Sharath A., & Singh, Sanjay. (2013). Detection of User Cluster with Suspicious Activity in Online Social Networking Sites. 2013 Second International Conference on Advanced Computing, Networking and Security (Adcons 2013), 220-225.

Lamb, Kevin. (2015). Days of Rage: America's Radical Underground, the FBI, and the Forgotten Age of Revolutionary Violence. The Journal of Social, Political, and Economic Studies, 40(4), 468-472.

Lauterbach, Marc. (2009). Hate online: Exploring the world of extremist internet culture. (1463919 M.A.), The George Washington University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304880356?accountid=10246

Lee, Elissa, & Leets, Laura. (2002). Persuasive storytelling by hate groups online: Examining its effects on adolescents. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(6), 927-957.

Lennings, Christopher J., Amon, Krestina L., Brummert, Heidi, & Lennings, Nicholas J. (2010). Grooming for terror: The internet and young people. Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 17(3), 424-437. doi: 10.1080/13218710903566979

Leone, Massimo. (2015). Propaganda mala fide : Towards a comparative semiotics of violent religious persuasion. Semiotica, 2015(207), 631-655.

Levin, Brian. (2002). Cyberhate: A legal and historical analysis of extremists' use of computer networks in America. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(6), 958-988.

Levin, Brian. (2015). The Original Web of Hate. American Behavioral Scientist, 59(12), 1609-1630. doi: 10.1177/0002764215588815

Lim, You Seok (2012). A Study on the Radicalization of Homegrown Terrorism and Trend Analysis. Korean terrorism studies Review, 5(3), 157-174.

Littman, Sol. (2015). A personal reflection on good and evil on the Internet. In N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi, J. G. D. Grieve, N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi & J. G. D. Grieve (Eds.), The Routledge international handbook on hate crime. (pp. 289-292). New York, NY, US: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Livingstone, David. (2007). Taking on the Radicals. Index on Censorship, 36(4), 148-153.

Livingstone, S., Papaioannou, T., del Mar Grandío Pérez, M., & Wijnen, C. W. (Eds.). (2012). Critical Insights in European Media Literacy Research and Policy special issue. *Media Studies* 3(6).

Livingstone, S., Haddon, L., Görzig, A., and Ólafsson, K. (2011). Risks and safety on the Internet: The perspective of European children. Full Findings. LSE, London: EU Kids Online.

Lyons, David K. (2013). Analyzing the effectiveness of Al Qaeda's online influence operations by means of propaganda theory. (1539962 M.S.), The University of Texas at El Paso, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1415436250?accountid=10246

Maher, Shiraz. (2007). Road to Jihad. Index on Censorship, 36(4), 144-147.

Mahmood, Shah. (2012). Online Social Networks: The Overt and Covert Communication Channels for Terrorists and Beyond. 2012 Ieee International Conference on Technologies for Homeland Security, 574-579.

Mandal, Sujoyini, & Lim, Ee-Peng. (2008). Second Life: Limits of creativity or cyber threat? 2008 Ieee Conference on Technologies for Homeland Security, Vols 1 and 2 (pp. 498-503).

Mastors, Elena, & Siers, Rhea. (2014). Omar al-Hammami: A case study in radicalization. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 377-388.

McCabe, Thomas R. (2016). A Strategy for the DAESH Foreign Fighter Threat. Orbis, 60(1), 140-153.

McNeal, Gregory S. (2007/09//2007/2008). Cyber embargo: countering the internet jihad.

McDonald, Carina Louise. (2010). Web 2.0, Terror 2.0? Salafi-Jihadist Terrorist use of the Internet. University of Calgary (Canada), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/847582411?accountid=10246

McGilloway, Angela, Ghosh, Priyo, & Bhui, Kamaldeep. (2015). A systematic review of pathways to and processes associated with radicalization and extremism amongst Muslims in Western societies. International Review of Psychiatry, 27(1), 39-50.

Meddaugh, Priscilla Marie, & Kay, Jack. (2009). Hate Speech or ‚ÄúReasonable Racism? ‚Äù The Other in Stormfront. Journal of Mass Media Ethics, 24(4), 251-268.

Meloy, J. Reid, & Yakeley, Jessica. (2014). The Violent True Believer as a "Lone Wolf" – Psychoanalytic Perspectives on Terrorism. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 347-365.

Menkhaus, K. E. N. (2014). Al-Shabaab and Social Media: A Double-Edged Sword. Brown Journal of World Affairs, 20(2), 309-327.

Minei, Elizabeth, & Matusitz, Jonathan. (2011). Cyberterrorist messages and their effects on targets: A qualitative analysis. Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 21(8), 995-1019.

Mizuko, I., Horst, H.A., Bittanti, M., Boyd, D., Herr-Stephenson, B., Lange, P.J., Pascoe, C.J., & Robinson, L. (2008). *Living and Learning with New Media: Summary of Findings from the Digital Youth Project.* The John D. and Catherine T. MacArthur Foundation Reports on Digital Media and Learning.

Mohamed, Feisal G. (2007). The Globe of Villages: Digital Media and the Rise of Homegrown Terrorism. Dissent (00123846), 54(1), 61-64.

Moretti Fernandez, Luciana. (2015). Apology for crime: situational analysis of the communication within criminal commands in Brazil. Communication & Society, 83-96.

Morrison, Steven R. (2011). Terrorism online: is speech the same as it ever was? Creighton Law Review, 44(4), 963-1002.

Mueller, Jessica. (2016). Emotional Response to Terrorism and Perceived Criminal Responsibility: Does Method of Recruitment Matter. (10107584 Psy.D.), Alliant International University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791450767?accountid=10246

Navest, Aysha, de Koning, Martijn, & Moors, Annelies. (2016). Chatting about Marriage with Female Migrants to Syria. Anthropology Today, 32(2), 22-25.

Nesser, Petter. (2008). How did Europe's global Jihadis obtain training for their militant causes? Terrorism and Political Violence, 20(2), 234-256.

Neumann, P. R. (2013). Options and strategies for countering online radicalization in the United States. *Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 36*(6), 431-459.

Ogaard, Kirk. (2013). Synthesizing Social Media Date Using Information Morphing. 2013 Ase/Ieee International Conference on Social Computing (Socialcom), 944-949.

O'Hara, Kieron. (2002). the Internet: A Tool for Democratic Pluralism? Science as Culture, 11(2), 287-298.

Olsson, Peter A. (2013). Homegrown Terrorists, Rebels in Search of a Cause. Middle East Quarterly, 20(3), 3-10.

O'Shaughnessy, Nicholas J., & Baines, Paul R. (2009). Selling terror: The symbolization and positioning of Jihad. Marketing Theory, 9(2), 227-241.

Osuna S, Frau-Meigs, D., Bossu, A., Jensen, D. Intercreativity and Interculturality in ECO Project's virtual learning environments, *Open Education: from OERs to MOOCs*, Heidelberg, Springer, Lecture Notes in Educational Technology Series, 2016.

Paulsen, Derek. (2007). Cyber Terrorism: Myths and Facts. Conference Papers -- American Society of Criminology, 1.

Pauwels, Lieven, & Schils, Nele. (2016). Differential online exposure to extremist content and political violence: Testing the relative strength of social learning and competing perspectives. Terrorism and Political Violence, 28(1), 1-29.

Paz, Reuven. (2009). Reading Their Lips: The Credibility of Militant Jihadi Web Sites as 'Soft Power' in the War of the Minds Home-Grown Terrorism: Understanding and Addressing the Root Causes of Radicalization among Groups with an Immigrant Heritage in Europe (Vol. 60, pp. 114-126).

Pearson, Elizabeth. (2016). The Case of Roshonara Choudhry: Implications for Theory on Online Radicalization, DAESH Women, and the Gendered Jihad. Policy & Internet, 8(1), 5-33.

Peperhove, Roman. (2010). Islamist Websites: an Up-to-Date Snapshot from a German Point of View Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 153-163).

Perry, Barbara, & Olsson, Patrik. (2009). Cyberhate: the globalization of hate. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 185-199.

Perry, Barbara, & Olsson, Patrik. (2009). Cyberhate: the globalization of hate. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 185-199.

Pickard, Victor W. (2006). United Yet Autonomous: Indymedia and the Struggle to Sustain a Radical Democratic Network. Media, Culture & Society, 28(3), 315-336.

Piorkowski, John, & Zhou, Lina. (2013). Content Feature Enrichment for Analyzing Trust Relationships in Web Forums. 2013 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 1486-1487.

Piper, Paul. (2008). Nets of Terror: Terrorist Activity on the Internet (English). Searcher (Medford, N.J), 16(10), 28-38.

Pluchinsky, Dennis, & Roujansky, Jacques. (2007). The Migration of Terrorist Tactics, Techniques, and Creativity (TTC) (English). REE. Revue de l'electricite et de l'electronique (10).

Pollock, David, Wenig, Gilad, Raydan, Noam, & Barnhard, Gavi. (2015). Fikra Forum Online Engagement between the West and the Middle East. Soundings, 98(4), 501-514.

Pollock, E. T. (2006). Understanding and contextualising racial hatred on the internet: a study of newsgroups and websites. (U233179 Ph.D.), Nottingham Trent University (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301693572?accountid=10246

Pooley, Elizabeth. (2015). A New Sisterhood: The Allure of DAESH in Syria For Young Muslim Women in the UK. (1587471 M.S.), Arizona State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1680789280?accountid=10246

Post, Jerrold M. (2015). Terrorism and right-wing extremism: The changing face of terrorism and political violence in the 21st century: The virtual community of hatred. International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 65(2), 243-271.

Post, Jerrold M., McGinnis, Cody, & Moody, Kristen. (2014). The changing face of terrorism in the 21st century: The communications revolution and the virtual community of hatred. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 306-334.

Potter, W. J. (2013). Review of Literature on Media Literacy. *Sociology Compass,* 7: 417-435.

Pariser, E. (2011). *The Filter Bubble: What the Internet Is Hiding from You*. NY : Penguin.

Prentice, Sheryl, Taylor, Paul J., Rayson, Paul, Hoskins, Andrew, & O'Loughlin, Ben. (2011). Analyzing the semantic content and persuasive composition of extremist media: A case study of texts produced during the Gaza conflict. Information Systems Frontiers, 13(1), 61-73.

Qin, J. L., Zhou, Y. L., Reid, E., Lai, G. P., & Chen, H. C. (2006). Unraveling international terrorist groups' exploitation of the web: Technical sophistication, media richness, and web interactivity Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3917, pp. 4-15).

Quayle, Ethel, & Taylor, Max. (2011). Social networking as a nexus for engagement and exploitation of young people. Information Security Technical Report, 16(2), 44-50.

Qureshi, Pir Abdul Rasool, Memon, Nasrullah, & Wiil, Uffe Kock. (2010). EWaS: Novel Approach for Generating Early Warnings to Prevent Terrorist Attacks. 2010 Second International Conference on Computer Engineering and Applications: Iccea 2010, Proceedings, Vol 2, 410-414.

Ramsay, Gilbert. (2011). Consuming the jihad: An enquiry into the subculture of Internet jihadism. (U606145 Ph.D.), University of St. Andrews (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1512394871?accountid=10246

Reding, Randal G. (2016). Terror's tangled web: Assessing the Islamic State's cyber recruiting strategies in Western countries. (10107639 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791981453?accountid=10246

Reid, E., Qin, J. L., Zhou, Y. L., Lai, G. P., Sageman, M., Weimann, G., & Chen, H. C. (2005). Collecting and analyzing the presence of terrorists on the web: A case study of Jihad Websites Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3495, pp. 402-411).

Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchen. (2007). Internet-Savvy U.S. And Middle Eastern Extremist Groups. Mobilization: An International Journal, 12(2), 177-192.

Reid, Edna, & Hsinchun, Chen. (2006). Extremist social movement groups and their online digital libraries (English). Information outlook, 10(6).

Reynolds, Teddy. (2015). Pulling back the curtain: an examination of the english defence league and their use of facebook. (10084492 Ph.D.), University of St. Andrews (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1779253412?accountid=10246

Robinson, Rowena. (2004). Virtual Warfare: The Internet as the New Site for Global Religious Conflict. Asian Journal of Social Science, 32(2), 198-215. doi: 10.1163/1568531041705121

Rogan, Hanna. (2007). Abu Reuter and the E-Jihad: Virtual Battlefronts from Iraq to the Horn of Africa. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 8(2), 89-96.

Röhlinger, Thomas. (2016). The MILID Toolbox: For Human Rights. Against Radicalization. Strategies, Methodologies, Tools – Fresh from the "Glocal" Grassroots, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 153-166.

Rothenberger, Liane. (2012). Terrorist Groups: Using Internet and Social Media for Disseminating Ideas. New Tools for Promoting Political Change. Grupƒ Éri teroriste: folosind Internetul ≈üi re≈£elele sociale pentru a-≈üi disemina ideile. Noi instrumente pentru a promova schimbarea politicƒÉ., 14(3), 7-23.

Rumbough, Tim. (2003). Explosive information: How the internet can help terrorists (English). Journal of information ethics, 12(2), 16-30.

Ryan, Johnny. (2007). The four P-words of militant Islamist radicalization and recruitment: Persecution, precedent, piety, and perseverance. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 30(11), 985-1011.

Sabetnia, Elahe, Poorgholami, Maryam, & Jalali, Mehrdad. (2012). Cybercrime Detection through Multilayer Perceptron Neural Network: Evaluate and Compare 2011 3rd International Conference on Computer Technology and Development (pp. 277-281).

Sachan, Abhishek. (2012). Countering Terrorism through Dark Web Analysis 2012 Third International Conference on Computing Communication & Networking Technologies.

Sageman, Marc. (2008). A strategy for fighting international Islamist terrorists. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 618(1), 223-231.

Salem, Arab, Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchun. (2006). Content analysis of jihadi extremist groups' videos Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3975, pp. 615-620).

Salem, Arab, Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchun. (2008). Multimedia content coding and analysis: Unraveling the content of Jihadi extremist groups' videos. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 31(7), 605-626.

Salihu, Flurije. (2015). Assemblages of radicalism: The online recruitment practices of Islamist terrorists. (76), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2015-99191-096&site=ehost-live&scope=site Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Salihu, Flurije. Assemblages of Radicalism: The Online Recruitment Practices of Islamist Terrorists. (AAI3666750). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1767331199?accountid=10246

Saniotis, Arthur. (2005). Re-Enchanting Terrorism: Jihadists as "Liminal Beings". Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 28(6), 533-545.

Scanlon, Jacob R., & Gerber, Matthew S. (2015). Forecasting Violent Extremist Cyber Recruitment. Ieee Transactions on Information Forensics and Security, 10(11), 2461-2470.

Schafer, Joseph A., Mullins, Christopher W., & Box, Stephanie. (2014). Awakenings: The Emergence of White Supremacist Ideologies. Deviant Behavior, 35(3), 173-196.

Schmidle, Robert E. (2010). Positioning Theory and Terrorist Networks. Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 40(1), 65-78.

Schmitz, Rachel M. (2016). Intersections of hate: Exploring the transecting dimensions of race, religion, gender, and family in Ku Klux Klan Web sites. Sociological Focus, 49(3), 200-214.

Scott, G. Podder, S. (2015). Social Media, Recruitment, Allegiance and the Islamic State. Terrorism Research Initiative, Vol 9, No 4 (2015)

Seib, Philip. (2008). Terrorism and √¢¬Ä¬úthe Al Jazeera Effect√¢¬Ä¬ù. Conference Papers -- International Studies Association, 1.

Selepak, Andrew. (2010). Skinhead Super Mario Brothers: An Examination of Racist and Violent Games on White Supremacist Web Sites. Journal of Criminal Justice & Popular Culture, 17(1), 1-47.

Serres, A. (2012). *Dans le labyrinthe.* Évaluer l'information sur internet. Caen : C&F éditions.

Shaikh, Mubin. (2015). Countering Violent Extremism (CVE) Online: An Anecdotal Case Study Related to Engaging DAESH Members and Sympathizers (from North America, Western Europe, and Australia) on Twitter. Soundings, 98(4), 478-487.

Shavit, Uriya. (2006). Al-Qaeda's Saudi Origins. Middle East Quarterly, 13(4), 3-13.

Shkel, Tamara. (2008). The Provider Will Have to Answer. Statutes & Decisions: The Laws of the USSR & Its Successor States, 43(2), 84-86. doi: 10.2753/RSD1061-0014430217

Shorer-Zeltser, Marina, & Ben-Israel, Galit. (2007). Greater is our terror of the unknown the diasporic Internet networks and their inference with global security Eciw 2007: Proceedings of the 6th European Conference on Information Warfare and Security (pp. 253-262).

Sibianu, Daniela. (2010). Islamist Propaganda on the Internet. Terrorist Entities' Response to Alleged Anti-Muslim Western Actions Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 81-89).

Sidhu, Dawinder S. (2007). The chilling effect of government surveillance programs on the use of the internet by muslim-americans. University of Maryland Law Journal of Race, Religion, Gender & Class, 7(2), 375-393.

Silke, Andrew. (2010). The Internet & Terrorist Radicalization: The Psychological Dimension Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 27-39).

Simi, Pete, & Futrell, Robert. (2006). Cyberculture and the endurance of white power activism. Journal of Political & Military Sociology, 34(1), 115-142.

Singh, Jagtar, & Kerr, Paulette, & Hamburger, Esther. (2016). *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*

Singh, Jagtar. (2016). MILID: An Indispensable Intervention for Countering Radicalization and Violent Extremism, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 223-235.

Sivek, S. C. (2013). Packaging inspiration: Al-Qaeda's digital magazine Inspire in the self-radicalization process. International Journal of Communication, 7, 584-606

Skillicorn, D. B. (2012). Lessons from a Jihadi Corpus. 2012 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 874-878.

Speckhard, Anne. (2009). The Militant Jihad in Europe: Fighting Home-grown Terrorism Home-Grown Terrorism: Understanding and Addressing the Root Causes of Radicalization among Groups with an Immigrant Heritage in Europe (Vol. 60, pp. 143-160).

Spinks, Brandon Todd. (2010). Assessing perceived credibility of Web sites in a terrorism context: The PFLP, Tamil Tigers, Hamas, and Hezbollah. (70), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2010-99110-032&site=ehost-live&scope=site   Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Stan, Mariana, & Vladescu, Andrei. (2010). The Islamist Propaganda on Women and Children Web Sites Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 93-103).

Stan, Mariana. (2010). Islamic Terrorism in Europe Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 41-52).

Stekelenburg, Jacquelien. (2014). Going All the Way: Politicizing, Polarizing, and Radicalizing Identity Offline and Online. Sociology Compass, 8(5), 540-555.

Stevens, T. & Neumann, P.R. (2009). *Countering Online Radicalization: A Strategy for Action*. London: ICSR/Community Security Trust, p. 10.

Sureka, Ashish, Kumaraguru, Ponnurangam, Goyal, Atul, & Chhabra, Sidharth. (2010). Mining You Tube to Discover Extremist Videos, Users and Hidden Communities Information Retrieval Technology (Vol. 6458, pp. 13-24).

Sutton, Mike, & Wright, Cecile. (2009). Finding the far right online: an exploratory study of white supremacist websites. Internet Journal of Criminology, 1-24.

Tang, L. (2013). 'The Politics of Flies: Mocking News in Chinese Cyberspace.' Chinese Journal of Communication, 6(4): 482–496.

Tateo, Luca. (2005). The Italian Extreme Right On-line Network: An Exploratory Study Using an Integrated Social Network Analysis and Content Analysis Approach. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10(2).

Taylor, William D., Johnson, Genevieve, Ault, Michael K., Griffith, Jennifer A., Rozzell, Bobby, Connelly, Shane. Ness, Alisha M. (2015). Ideological group persuasion: A within-person study of how violence, interactivity, and credibility features infuence online persuasion. Computers in Human Behavior, 51, 448-460.

Tomomi, Yamaguchi. (2013). Xenophobia in Action: Ultranationalism, Hate Speech, and the Internet in Japan. Radical History Review(117), 98-118. doi: 10.1215/01636545-2210617

Top Gustavson, Aleta. (2012). Ideological resource sharing on the Internet and the patterning of networks in the White Supremacist/Separatist Movement. (3552944 Ph.D.), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1312531269?accountid=10246

Torrent, Jordi. (2016). Connecting the Dots: Preventing Violent Extremism; the Global Goals for Sustainable Development, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 203-212.

Torres Soriano, Manuel R. (2011). The Road to Media Jihad: The Propaganda Actions of Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb. Terrorism & Political Violence, 23(1), 72-88

Torres Soriano, Manuel R. (2012). Between the Pen and the Sword: The Global Islamic Media Front in the West. Terrorism & Political Violence, 24(5), 769-786.

Torres-Soriano, Manuel Ricardo. (2013). The Dynamics of the Creation, Evolution, and Disappearance of Terrorist Internet Forums. International Journal of Conflict and Violence, 7(1).

Tsfati, Yariv, & Weimann, Gabriel. (2002). www.terrorism.com: Terror on the Internet. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 25(5), 317-332.

Turner-Graham, Emily. (2014). 'Breivik is my Hero': the Dystopian World of Extreme Right Youth on the Internet. Australian Journal of Politics & History, 60(3), 416-430.

Tuttle, Michelle. (2016). Terrorism recruitment using internet marketing. (10108078 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1793408099?accountid=10246

UNESCO. (2013). Global Media and Information Literacy Assessment Framework: Country Readiness and Competencies

Valsamidis, Palvos. (2016). Representing "Us"- Representing "Them": Visualizing Racism in Greek Primary School Films, *Media and Information Literacy: Reinforcing Humanm Rights, Countering Radicalization and Extremism*, 213-222.

Van Buuren, Jelle, & de Graaf, Beatrice. (2014). Hatred of the system: Menacing loners and autonomous cells in The Netherlands. Terrorism and Political Violence, 26(1), 156-184.

Van San, Marion, Sieckelinck, Stijn, & de Winter, Micha. (2013). Ideals Adrift: An Educational Approach to Radicalization. Ethics and Education, 8(3), 276-289.

Varin, D. (2015). Boko Haram and the War on Terror. Praeger

Veerasamy, Namosha, & Grobler, Marthie. (2011). Terrorist use of the Internet: Exploitation and Support Through ICT Infrastructure. Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Information Warfare and Security, 260-267.

Vergani, Matteo. (2014). Neojihadism and Muslim‚ÄìChristian Relations in the Mindanao Resistance Movement: A Study of Facebook Digital Narratives. Islam & Christian-Muslim Relations, 25(3), 357-372.

Vertigans, Stephen, & Sutton, Philip. (2001). Back to the Future: 'Islamic Terrorism' and Interpretations of Past and Present. Sociological Research Online, 6(3).

Von Knop, Katharina. (2007). Hypermedia Seduction for Terrorist Recruiting. Conference Papers -- International Studies Association, 1.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2013). Tracking On-line Radicalization Using Investigative Data Mining. 2013 National Conference on Communications (Ncc).

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2015). An Approach for Dynamic Identification of Online Radicalization in Social Networks. Cybernetics & Systems, 46(8), 641-665.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2015). Measuring Radicalization in Online Social Networks Using Markov Chains. Journal of Applied Security Research, 10(1), 23-47.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2016). New Metrics for Dynamic Analysis of Online Radicalization. Journal of Applied Security Research, 11(2), 166-184.

Walker, Clive, & Conway, Maura. (2015). Online terrorism and online laws. Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict, 8(2), 156-175.

Warner, Benjamin R. (2010). Segmenting the Electorate: The Effects of Exposure to Political Extremism Online. Communication Studies, 61(4), 430-444.

Watts, Meredith W. (2001). Aggressive Youth Cultures and Hate Crime: Skinheads and Xenophobic Youth in Germany. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(4), 600.

Wei, Wei, Joseph, Kenneth, Liu, Huan, & Carley, Kathleen M. (2015). The Fragility of Twitter Social Networks Against Suspended Users. Proceedings of the 2015 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam 2015), 9-16.

Weimann, Gabriel, & Von Knop, Katharina. (2008). Applying the notion of noise to countering online terrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 31(10), 883-902.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2004 Annual Meeting, Montreal, Cana). Terror on the Internet.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2008). The Psychology of Mass Mediated Terrorism. American Behavioral Scientist, 52(1), 69-86.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2010). Terror on Facebook, Twitter, and Youtube. Brown Journal of World Affairs, 16(2), 45-54.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2011). Cyber-fatwas and terrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 34(10), 765-781.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2015). Terrorist Migration to Social Media. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 16(1), 180-187.

Weisburd, A. Aaron. (2010). Jihadis Online: Concepts and Frameworks for Online Counter-Terrorism Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 197-210).

Weitzman, Mark. (2010). Antisemitism and Terrorism on the Electronic Highway Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 7-24).

West, Dondi, & Latham, Christina. (2010). The Extremist Edition of Social Networking: The Inevitable Marriage of Cyber Jihad and Web 2.0. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Information Warfare and Security, 523-531.

White, J. (2012). Virtual indoctrination and the digihad: The evolution of Al-Qaeda's media strategy. Small Wars Journal. http://smallwarsjournal.com/jrnl/art/virtual-indoctrination-and-the-digihad

Wilson, Carolyn, & Grizzle, Alton, & Tuazon, Ramon, & Akyempong, Kwame, & Cheung, Chi-Kim. (2011). Media and Information Literacy Curriculum for Teachers

Wilson, Samuel F., II. (2014). Terrorist Experts' Perceptions of how the Internet has Shaped International Terrorism. (3668962 Ph.D.), Walden University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1648432400?accountid=10246

Wojcieszak, Magdalena Elzbieta. (2011). Computer-mediated false consensus: Radical online groups, social networks and news media. Mass Communication & Society, 14(4), 527-546.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2006). "Don't Talk to Me"- The Impact of Unanimous Online Groups and Offline Ties on Extremism. Conference Papers -- American Political Science Association, 1-36.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2008). False consensus goes online: Impact of ideologically homogeneous groups on false consensus. Public Opinion Quarterly, 72(4), 781-791.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2009). 'Carrying online participation offline',ÄîMobilization by radical online groups and politically dissimilar offline ties. Journal of Communication, 59(3), 564-586.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2010). 'Don't talk to me': Effects of ideologically homogeneous online groups and politically dissimilar offline ties on extremism. New Media & Society, 12(4), 637-655.

Womer, Sarah, & Bunker, Robert J. (2010). Surenos gangs and Mexican cartel use of social networking sites. Small Wars & Insurgencies, 21(1), 81-94.

Wong, Meghan A., Frank, Richard, & Allsup, Russell. (2015). The supremacy of online white supremacists ,Äì an analysis of online discussions by white supremacists. Information & Communications Technology Law, 24(1), 41-73.

Woodring, David. (2014). 21st Century Radicalization: The Role of the Internet User and Nonuser in Terrorist Outcomes. (1554468 M.A.), University of Arkansas, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1527109139?accountid=10246

Wright, Marie. (2008). Technology & terrorism: How the Internet facilitates radicalization. The Forensic Examiner, 17(4), 14-20.

Xu, Jennifer, Chen, Hsinchun, Zhou, Yilu, & Qin, Jialun. (2006). On the topology of the dark web of terrorist groups Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3975, pp. 367-376).

Yang, Christopher C., & Ng, Tobun D. (2008). Analyzing content development and visualizing social interactions in web forum Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 25-30).

Yang, Christopher C., & Ng, Tobun D. (2009). Web Opinions Analysis with Scalable Distance-Based Clustering Isi: 2009 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 65-70).

Zanasi, A., & Artioli, M. (2009). Text and video mining solutions to national security intelligence problems Data Mining X: Data Mining, Protection, Detection and Other Security Technologies (Vol. 42, pp. 3-12).

Zanasi, Alessandro. (2009). Virtual Weapons for Real Wars: Text Mining for National Security Proceedings of the International Workshop on Computational Intelligence in Security for Information Systems 2008 (Vol. 53, pp. 53-60).

Zhang, Yulei, Zeng, Shuo, Fan, Li, Dang, Yan, Larson, Catherine A., & Chen, Hsinchun. (2009). Dark Web Forums Portal: Searching and Analyzing Jihadist Forums Isi: 2009 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 71-76).

APPENDIX 6.
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SELECTED WORKS PUBLISHED IN FRENCH

Abid, N., Aouadi, M., Ben Mohamed, M., Bakhti, A., Djemali, J., Jmila, H., Triki, A. (2011). Le rôle des médias et des TIC dans les « révolutions arabes » : l'exemple de la Tunisie. *Chimères, 75*(1), 219-235.

Aclimandos, T. (2010). L'islam politique égyptien. *Confluences Méditerranée, 75*(4), 167-179. https://doi.org/10.3917/come.075.0167

Agences. (2014, September 15). Une coalition internationale contre l'État islamique. *Le Temps*. Retrieved from https://www.letemps.ch/monde/2014/09/15/une-coalition-internationale-contre-islamique

Alava, S. (2014). La Francophonie à la croisée des savoirs: l'offre de formation sur la Francophonie dans le monde. In *La langue française dans le monde 2014 : Rapport Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie* (Vol. 2014, pp. 323-341). OIF.

Alava, S., & Morales, L. (2015). Usages numériques non formels chez les jeunes et performance scolaire. *Nouveaux cahiers de la recherche en éducation, 18*(2), 138-164.

Alde'emeh, M. (2015b). *Pourquoi nous sommes tous des djihadistes : j'étais en Syrie*. La Boîte à Pandore.

Allievi, S. (2015). *Les convertis a l'islam – Les nouveaux musulmans d'Europe*. Available from http://www.editions-harmattan.fr/index.asp?Navig=catalogue&obj=livre&no=7702

Amghar, S. (2008). Le salafisme en France: de la révolution islamique à la révolution conservatrice. *Critique internationale, 3*(40), 95-113. Retrieved from http://emridnetwork. org/static/documents/21-mars/3-islam-en-europe/le-salafisme-en-france-de-la-revolution-islamique-a-la-revoluton-conservatrice.bfe4c9da50b8.pdf

Antonio Cassese, P. (2015). Terrorisme et lutte armée. *Manière de voir,* (140), 61.

Appelbaum, J., Müller-Maguhn, A., Zimmermann, J., & Assange, J. (2013). *Menace sur nos libertés : comment Internet nous espionne. Comment résister*. Robert Laffont.

Atmani, M. (2015). Au coeur de la cyberguerre entre Anonymous et djihadistes. *Le Temps*.

Aubrac, R. (2003). Terroristes ou résistants ? *Topique, 83*(2), 7. https://doi.org/10.3917/ top.083.0007

Barzin, N. (2010). Propagande et attentats-suicide. *Topique, 111*(2), 59. https://doi.org/10.3917/ top.111.0059

Baudouï, R. (2009). *Géopolitique du terrorisme*. Armand Colin.

Baumard, P. (2012). *Questions de futur*. CNRS Éditions.

Beaule, S. (2000a). Il n'y a que des cauchemars et des angoisses, des délires... : lecture de la nouvelle fantastique et de science-fiction québécoise depuis 1980. *University of Toronto Quarterly, 69*(4), 871.

Beauvallet, G., Berthet, C., Blecher, L., Bonnet, Y., Daloz, P., Herzog, J., Bandini, A. (2014). Lutte contre le terrorisme : blocage administratif de sites Internet : le Conseil national du numérique propose des alternatives plus efficaces et plus protectrices des libertés. Conseil national du numérique.

Benberrah, M. (2015). La Tunisie en transition: les usages numériques d'Ennahdha. Éditions L'Harmattan.

Benichou, D., Khosrokhavar, F., & Migaux, P. (2015). *Le jihadisme*. EDI8.

Benjamin, D., Franco, S., & Hecker, M. (2006). Le terrorisme en perspective. *Politique étrangère, hiver* (4), 887-900. https://doi.org/10.3917/pe.064.0887

Benkada, S. (2004a). La revendication des libertés publiques dans le discours politique du nationalisme algérien et de l'anticolonialisme français (1919-1954). *Insaniyat,* (25-26), 179-199.

Bernard, J., Yann, R., & Jacques, L. (2006). *Des flux et des territoires*. Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Bernard, P. (2016). David Cameron veut imposer des tests d'anglais aux musulmanes. *Le Temps*.

Besson, S. (2015). Pour Al-Qaida, tuer des Occidentaux est une question de survie. *Le Temps*.

Bibard, L. (2016). *Terrorisme et féminisme : le masculin en question*. Éditions de l'Aube.

Bizimana, A.-J. (2006). Les risques du journalisme dans les conflits armés. *Communication. Information médias théories pratiques, 25*(1), 84-111. https://doi.org/10.4000/communication.1511

Blanchart, J. (2016). *Crimes du futur*. Premier Parallèle.

Blom, A. (2011). Les « martyrs » jihadistes veulent-ils forcément mourir ? *Revue française de science politique, 61*(5), 867–891.

Boms, N. (2006). Immigration, radicalization et discours musulman en Europe : l'angle soufi. *Outre-Terre, 4*(17), 247–257.

Bonnefoy, L. (2011). Le salafisme au Yémen l'antichambre de la violence ? Salafism in Yemen. The antechamber of violence ? *Transcontinentales : Sociétés,* (7), 69–79.

Borel, S. (2014). *Et les réseaux sauveront le monde… ? Essai sur l'idéologie réticulaire*. Éditions Le Bord de l'eau.

Bossi, P., & Bricaire, F. (2005). Des agents infectieux armes du terrorisme. *La Presse Médicale, 34*(2), 147–148. https://doi.org/10.1016/S0755-4982(05)83894-1

Boulanger, P. (2014). *Géopolitique des médias : acteurs, rivalités et conflits*. Armand Colin.

Boutih, M. (2016). Génération radicale. *Le Débat, 189*(2), 73-87. https://doi.org/10.3917/deba.189.0073

Bouzar, D. (2006). *Quelle éducation face au radicalisme religieux ?* Dunod.

Bozarslan, H. (2009). Le madhisme en Turquie : L'« incident de Menemen » en 1930. *Revue des mondes musulmans et de la Méditerranée,* (91), 297-320. https://doi.org/10.4000/remmm.261

Bulinge, F. (2012). Un outil de décryptage de contenus manipulatoires : cas des groupes islamistes radicaux. *Communication et organisation,* (42), 175-190. https://doi.org/10.4000/communicationorganisation.3938

Cardon, D., & Granjon, F. (2014). Chapitre 6. Individualisation et auto-organisation. *Contester, 2*(1), 135-177.

Carré, O. (1983). Le combat-pour-Dieu et l'État islamique chez Sayyid Qotb, l'inspirateur du radicalisme islamique actuel. *Revue française de science politique, 33*(4), 680–705. https://doi.org/10.3406/rfsp.1983.394083

Casoni, D., & Brunet, L. (2003). *Comprendre l'acte terroriste.* Les Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Casutt, G. (2016). *Les femmes musulmanes dans l'ombre du jihad : une armée de roses entre soutien visible et invisible à l'utopie jihadiste dans une conception féminine du fard al ayn* (thèse de doctorat). EHESS, Paris.

Chaouche, M. (2013). *Croiserie aux vents du Web.* Éditions Publibook.

Cimino, M. (2014). La « fabrique de l'ennemi » en système totalitaire. Le cas syrien (1946-2014). *Relations internationales, 158*(3), 117. https://doi.org/10.3917/ri.158.0117

Clément, P.-A. (2010). *G.I. contre jihad.* Les Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Collectif, & Truong, N. (2016). *Résister à la terreur.* Éditions de l'Aube.

Collectif. (2015). Le monde en 2030 vu par la CIA. Des Équateurs.

Conesa, P. (2016). *Dr. Saoud et Mr. Djihad : la diplomatie religieuse de l'Arabie saoudite.* Robert Laffont.

Conesa, P. (2016). *Guide du petit djihadiste.* Fayard.

Conti, B. (2011). Les musulmans en Italie entre crise identitaire et réponses islamistes. *Revue européenne des migrations internationales, 27*(2), 183–201. https://doi.org/10.4000/remi.5501

Conway, M. (2009). Le cyber-terrorisme.: Le discours des médias américains et ses impacts. *Cités, 39*(3), 81. https://doi.org/10.3917/cite.039.0081

Crettiez, X. (2011). « High risk activism »: essai sur le processus de radicalization violente (première partie). *Pôle Sud,* (34), 45–60.

Crettiez, X. (2012). « High Risk Activism »: essai sur le processus de radicalization violente. *Pôle Sud,* (35), 97–112.

Dallemagne, G., Matz, V., & Martens, Q. (2016). *La Belgique face au radicalisme : comprendre et agir.* Presses universitaires de Louvain.

Damon, J. (2010). Contre le terrorisme, l'arme économique. *Enjeux, les Échos, 85.*

Daniel, H. (1992). Réseaux internationaux de violence, ventes d'armes et terrorisme. Centre d'étude des conflits.

Danthe, M. (2015). Manuel Valls choisit Facebook. *Le Temps.*

Dar-al-ifta'a. (2014). L'esclavage des femmes par Daesh, rapport en arabe de l'Observatoire des fatwas takfiriste et de pensée extrémiste, Dar al-iftâ'a, Le Caire, décembre 2014.

Dassetto, F. (2005). Les dimensions complexes d'une rencontre : Europe et islam. *Revue théologique de Louvain, 36*(2), 201–220.

Debord, T., Binder, P., Salomon, J., & Roué, R. (2002). Les armes biologiques. *Topique, 81*(4), 93. https://doi.org/10.3917/top.081.0093

Deffarges, T. (2003). Sur la nature et les causes du terrorisme. Une revue de la littérature économique. *Tiers-Monde, 44*(174), 369–392. https://doi.org/10.3406/tiers.2003.5390

de G., V. (2014). Ils utilisent des hashtags spéciaux. *Le Temps.*

de Gaulmyn, I. (2016). Quelle responsabilité de l'islam dans la radicalisation ? *La Croix*. Retrieved from http://www.la-croix.com/France/Securite/Quelle-responsabilite-islam-dans-radicalization-2016-04-03-1200750863

Difraoui, A. E., & Uhlmann, M. (2015). Prévention de la radicalization et déradicalization : les modèles allemand, britannique et danois. *Politique étrangère, hiver* (4), 171-182.

Dirèche, K. (2010). « Les Murchidât au Maroc. Entre islam d'État et islam au féminin », Revue des mondes musulmans et de la Méditerranée, (128), 99-111. Retrieved from http://remmm.revues.org/6857

Ditchburn, J. (2015). Les pages Facebook des politiciens prises d'assaut par des antimusulmans. *La Presse Canadienne.*

Douzet, F. (2016). Le cyberespace, troisième front de la lutte contre Daech. *Hérodote, 1*(160-161), 223-238. https://doi.org/10.3917/her.160.0223

Ducol, B. (2015). Comment le jihadisme est-il devenu numérique ? *Sécurité et stratégie, 20*(1), 34-43.

Ducol, B. (2015). Devenir jihadiste à l'ère numérique. Une approche processuelle et situationnelle de l'engagement jihadiste au regard du Web (thèse de doctorat). Université Laval, Québec.

Ducol, B. (2015). Farhad Khosrokhavar, Radicalization [Compte-rendu de *Radicalisation*]. *Lectures*. Retrieved from https://lectures.revues.org/17541

Ducol, B. (2015). Martyrologie 2.0 ou la genèse d'une fabrique numérique des martyrs jihadistes. *Signes, Discours et Sociétés,* (15). Retrieved from http://www.revue-signes.info/document.php?id=4502. ISSN 1308-8378

Erelle, A. (2015). *Dans la peau d'une djihadiste : enquête au coeur des filières de recrutement de l'État islamique*. Paris, France : J'ai lu.

Faris, D. M. (2012). La révolte en réseau : le « printemps arabe » et les médias sociaux. *Politique étrangère, printemps* (1), 99-109.

Féo, A. D. (2009). Les musulmans de Châu Đốc (Vietnam) à l'épreuve du salafisme. *Moussons : Recherche en sciences humaines sur l'Asie du Sud-Est,* (13), 359-372.

Filiu, J.-P. (2015). Définir Al-Qaida. *Critique internationale, 2*(47), 111-133. Retrieved from http://spire.sciencespo.fr/hdl:/2441/eu4vqp9ompqllr09i62100681/resources/crii-047-0111.pdf

Folon, J. (2015). *Le printemps numérique : comment la révolution digitale a modifié la société, l'enseignement et les entreprises*. Corporate Copyright.

Francey, O. (2015). Le djihad au coeur de la mosquée de Genève. *Le Temps.*

Frau-Meigs, D. (2005). *Qui a détourné le 11 septembre ?* De Boeck Supérieur.

Fuchs, A., Ministère délégué à l'enseignement supérieur et à la recherche, & Alliance Athena. (2016). *Recherches sur les radicalizations, les formes de violence qui en résultent et la manière dont les sociétés les préviennent et s'en protègent : état des lieux, propositions, actions*. Paris, France : Alliance Athena.

Gervereau, L. (2003). La guerre n'est pas faite pour les images. *Vingtième Siècle. Revue d'histoire, 4*(80), 83-88.

Ghanem-Yazbeck. (2014, September 16). Du djihadisme et des femmes. *Huffington Post*. Retrieved from http://www.huffpostmaghreb.com/dalia-ghanemyazbeck/du-djihadisme-et-des-femm_b_5829928.html

Goetgheluck, D., & Conrath, P. (2011). Internet est-il dangereux ? *Le Journal des psychologues, 290*(7), 3. https://doi.org/10.3917/jdp.290.0003

Gremaud, R. (2015). Comment « déradicaliser » ? *Le Temps*.

Guadagno, R. E., Lankford, A., Muscanell, N. L., Okdie, B. M., & McCallum, D. M. (2010). Social influence in the online recruitment of terrorists and terrorist sympathizers: Implications for social psychology research. *Revue internationale de psychologie sociale, 23*(1), 25-56.

Gücük, M. T., & Menu, D. (2016). Vous Et Nous ; La Turquie attaquée ; Nos prisons débordent ; NOUS RECTIFIONS. Le Temps.

Guidère, M. (2016). Internet, haut lieu de la radicalization. *Pouvoirs,* (158), 115-123.

Haimzadeh, P. (2016). Un dialogue national instrumentalisé par les Occidentaux. Vers une nouvelle intervention en Libye ? *Le Monde diplomatique*.

Haras R. & Nikita M. (2015). Caliphettes: Women and the Appeal of Islamic State ». Quilliam Foundation. https://www.quilliamfoundation.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/publications/free/caliphettes-women-and-the-appeal-of-is.pdf

Hecker, M. (2007). Al Qaïda. *Études, 407*(11), 440-450.

Hecker, M. (2015). *Web social et djihadisme : du diagnostic aux remèdes*. Retrieved from http://www.ifri.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/fs57hecker.pdf

Hegghammer, T. (2006). Combattants saoudiens en Irak : modes de radicalisation et de recrutement. *Cultures & conflits,* (64), 111-126. https://doi.org/10.4000/conflits.2128

Heisbourg, F. (2016). *Comment perdre la guerre contre le terrorisme*. Stock.

Helly, D., & Nadeau, F. (2015). Radicalisation : ce qu'on refuse de voir. *Relations,* (781), 23-25.

Hénin, N. (2015). *Jihad Academy*. Fayard.

Henry, J.-R., Groc, G., & Institut de recherches et d'études sur le monde arabe et musulman (dir.). (2000). *Politiques méditerranéennes : entre logiques étatiques et espace civil : une réflexion franco-allemande*. Paris, France : Karthala-IREMAM.

Hervouet, G., & Campana, A. (dir.). (2013). *Terrorisme et insurrection : évolution des dynamiques conflictuelles et réponses des États*. Québec, QC: Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Hmed, C. (2012). Réseaux dormants, contingence et structures : genèses de la révolution tunisienne. *Revue française de science politique, 62*(5), 797. https://doi.org/10.3917/rfsp.625.797

Hoffmann, N. (2002). La radicalisation de l'islam : un facteur de déstabilisation en Asie du Sud-Est ? *Politique étrangère, 67*(1), 115-133. Retrieved from http://www.persee.fr/doc/polit_0032-342x_2002_num_67_1_5161#polit_0032-342X_2002_num_67_1_T1_0124_0000

Hussein, H. & Moreno Al-Ajamî, C. (2016, février 24). Le djihad fantasmé de Daesh. Retrieved from https://cdradical.hypotheses.org/15

Hussein, H. (2015). La télévision et la transformation de l'éthique islamiste : les présentatrices niqabées sur les chaînes salafistes satellitaires arabes. *Recherches féministes, 28*(2), 223.

Institut national des hautes études de la sécurité et de la justice (INHESJ). (2015). *La radicalisation violente. La documentation française.* Available from http://livre.fnac.com/a7933506/Collectif-La-radicalization-violente

Jones, D. (2012). *On a tous à y gagner : la révolution des médias sociaux, bien faire et faire le bien.* Pearson.

Jordi, T. G. (2009). *Syria's Kurds*. Routledge.

Jouanneau, S. (2016). Qui sont les hommes qui guident le culte musulman ? Une affaire d'État ? *Le Monde diplomatique.*

Kasiki S. (2016). *Dans la nuit de Daesh, confessions d'une repentie. Paris* : Éditions Robert Laffont.

Kéita, S. (2008). Isabelle Garcin-Marrou, Des violences et des médias. Paris, Éd. L'Harmattan, coll. Questions contemporaines, 2007, 285 p. Questions de communication, (14), 349-352.

Kepel, G. (2013). Merah-Tsarnaev, même combat, même impact. *Le Temps.*

Khosrokhavar, F. (2003). Islam et nouvelles formes de racisme. *Agora débats/jeunesses, 32*(1), 54-63. https://doi.org/10.3406/agora.2003.2094

Khosrokhavar, F. (2015). *Radicalisation*. Les Éditions de la MSH.

Kodmani, H. (2014). Le « djihadistan », un système totalitaire loin d'être improvisé. *Le Temps.*

Kraidy, M. M. (2012). Les médias en Arabie saoudite. *Anthropologie et Sociétés, 36*(1-2), 181-200. https://doi.org/10.7202/1011723ar

L'Heuillet, H. (2016). Radicalisation et terrorisme. *Cités,* (66), 123-136.

Laffont. (2015). Création d'un Observatoire sur la radicalization et l'extrémisme violent. Retrieved from http://www.45enord.ca/2015/02/creation-dun-observatoire-sur-la-radicalization-et-lextremisme-violent/

Landau, P. (2008). Pour Allah jusqu'à la mort : enquête sur les convertis à l'islam radical: document. Rocher.

Larouche, J.-M. (2003). *Reconnaissance et citoyenneté : au carrefour de l'éthique et du politique.* Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Lasseur, M. (2006). Cameroun : Afrique contemporaine, (215), 93–116.

Lavorel, S. (2005). *Les constitutions arabes et l'Islam : les enjeux du pluralisme juridique.* Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Leblanc, M. N., Fortin, S., & Le Gall, J. (2008). Être musulman en Occident après le 11 septembre : présentation. *Diversité urbaine, 8*(2), 5–11. https://doi.org/10.7202/000307ar

Leclercq, C., Lamghari, Y., Coolsaet, R., Torrekens, C., & et al. (2016). Revue l'observatoire, 86. Radicalisme violent, comprendre, prévenir... Liège : ASBL L'Observatoire.

Lefebvre, T. (2004). Stopub : analyse provisoire d'un rhizome activiste. *Multitudes, no 16*(2), 85-97.

Legrain, T. (2016). L'utilisation des réseaux sociaux par les bandes criminelles. *Sécurité globale,* (1), 97-111.

Lema, L. (2016). Lutte contre la radicalisation : place à l'hyperlocal. *Le Temps*.

Leveau, R., Mohsen-Finan, K., & Institut français des relations internationales (dir.). (2005). *Musulmans de France et d'Europe*. Paris : CNRS Éditions.

Luizard, P. J. (2015). *Le piège Daech. L'État islamique ou le retour de l'histoire*. Paris : La Découverte.

Lunel, R. W. (2015). À Lunel, fabrique de djihadistes français. *Le Temps*.

La Maçonne. (2015). Radicalisation à l'islam : un long processus. Retrieved from http://lamaconne.over-blog.com/2015/11/radicalization-a-l-islam-un-long-processus.html

Macleod, A. (2016). La culture populaire visuelle : un espace à explorer pour les études critiques de sécurité. *Cultures & Conflits,* (102), 17-32.

Mahathir, M. (2011). La Malaisie se radicalise : danger. *Le Temps*.

Maillart, J.-B. (2015). L'illégitime défense de la France contre Daech en Syrie. *Le Temps*.

Malbrunot, G. (2015). Abu Dhabi vs Koweït : les deux faces du Golfe. *Outre-Terre,* (44), 164-169.

Mannoni, P., & Bonardi, C. (2003). Terrorisme et mass médias. *Topique,* (83), 55-72.

Martinez, L. (2008). Structures, environnement et basculement dans le jihadisme, 133-156. https://doi.org/10.4000/conflits.10912

Marzouki, M. (2015). Moncef Marzouki : « Ne laissons pas s'installer un discours de haine ». *Le Temps*.

Mcdougall, J. (2009). « Soi-même » comme un « autre ». Les histoires coloniales d'Ahmad Tawfîq al-Madanî (1899-1983). *Revue des mondes musulmans et de la Méditerranée,* (95), 95-110. https://doi.org/10.4000/remmm.228

Melyani, M. (2015). *Printemps arabe : entre le pire des scénarios et l'aspiration à la citoyenneté.* Éditions L'Harmattan.

Mennucci, P., & djihadistes, commission d'enquête sur la surveillance des filières et des individus. (2015). *Rapport d'enquête de la commission d'enquête sur la surveillance des filières et des individus djihadistes : « Face à la menace djihadiste, la République mobilisée ».* Assemblée nationale.

Merzouk, M. (1997). Quand les jeunes redoublent de férocité : l'islamisme comme phénomène de génération. *Archives des sciences sociales des religions, 97*(1), 141-158. https://doi.org/10.3406/assr.1997.1127

Meyran, R. (2016). Comment devient-on jihadiste ? *Alternatives économiques,* (353), 28.

Meyran, R. (2016). Qui sont les djihadistes français ? Retrieved from https://generationbethune.wordpress.com/2016/01/11/qui-sont-les-djihadistes-francais/

Migaux, P. (2009). *Le terrorisme au nom du Jihad.* André Versaille/Renaissance du livre.

Mohammad-Arif, A. (2000). Salam America : l'islam indien en diaspora.

Moniquet, C. (2015). *Djihad : d'Al-Qaida à l'État Islamique, combattre et comprendre: document*. La Boîte à Pandore.

Mouline, N. (2015). Aux racines du djihadisme. Surenchères traditionalistes en terre d'islam. *Le Monde diplomatique*.

Muray, P. (2002). *Chers djihadistes–*. Mille et une nuits.

Nabhan M. (2014, octobre 19). Niqab et Kalachnikov : le jihad au féminin, face cachée de Daesh. *Huffington Post*. Retrieved from http://www.huffingtonpost.fr/myrna-nabhan/role-femmes-etat-islamique_b_5994028.html

Najar, S. (dir.). (2013). *Les réseaux sociaux sur Internet à l'heure des transitions démocratiques*. KARTHALA Éditions.

Napoleoni, L. (2015). *L'État islamique : multinationale de la violence*. Calmann-Lévy.

Ney, J.-P. (2015). *Pourquoi ils font le Djihad. Enquête sur la #générationmerah*. Artège.

Nicolas, A., & Philippe, F. (2010). Le mouvement de la résistance islamique, Hamas.

Nivat, A. (2006). *Islamistes : comment ils nous voient*. Fayard.

Orfali, B. (2012). *La banalisation de l'extrémisme à la veille de la présidentielle : radicalisation ou dé-radicalisation?* Éditions L'Harmattan.

Østebø, T. (2009). Une économie salafie de la prière dans la région du Balé en Éthiopie. *Afrique contemporaine, 231*(3), 43. https://doi.org/10.3917/afco.231.0043

Oualdi, M., Karoui, D. P.-E., & Verdeil, C. (2014). Les ondes de choc des révolutions arabes. Presses de l'Ifpo. http://books.openedition.org/ifpo/6686

Pérouse de Montclos, M.-A. (2012). Boko Haram et le terrorisme islamiste au Nigéria: insurrection religieuse, contestation politique ou protestation sociale? *SSRN Electronic Journal*. https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2282542

Peyry, Y.-M. (2016). *Menaces cybernétiques : Le manuel du combattant*. Artège.

Pradal, F. (2012). Plongée dans l'Égypte rebelle. Suez entre salafisme et révolution. *Le Monde diplomatique*.

Puchot, P., & collectif. (2016). *Les Frères musulmans et le pouvoir*. Galaade Éditions.

Racine, J.-L. (2000). Le Pakistan après le coup d'État militaire : sortie de crise, enlisement ou radicalisation? *Critique internationale, 7*(1), 22–29. https://doi.org/10.3406/criti.2000.1556

Raflik, J. (2016). *Terrorisme et mondialisation. Approches historiques*. Éditions Gallimard.

Rangoun, B. P. Envoyé spécial à. (2014). L'ultra bonze. Le Temps.

Rey, P. (2015). *Qui est daech ? Comprendre le nouveau terrorisme*. Philippe Rey.

Rioux, C. (2004). Antiterrorisme. *L'Actualité, 29*(8), 18.

Roche, Y., & Jouve, B. (dir.). (2006). *Des flux et des territoires : vers un monde sans États?* Québec, QC : Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Roudinesco, E. (2014). L'islam sur le divan. *Le Temps*.

Rougier, B. (2004). L'islamisme face au retour de l'islam ? *Vingtième Siècle. Revue d'histoire,* (82), 103–118.

Rougier, B. (2004). *Le Jihad au quotidien*. Presses Universitaires de France.

Roy, O. (2002). *L'islam mondialisé*. Seuil.

Saada, J. (2009). Médias et Internet dans le monde arabe : une opportunité pour Barack Obama ? *Confluences Méditerranée, 69*(2), 127. https://doi.org/10.3917/come.069.0127

Sabine, L. (2005). *Les constitutions arabes et l'Islam*. Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Schott, C. (2014). Les Cahiers de la sécurité et de la justice, ISSN 2427-1950. La radicalisation violente. Paris, France : La documentation française.

Seniguer, H. (2013). Terrorisme(s), islamisme(s) et violences politiques dans le monde musulman contemporain. *Confluences méditerranée, 85*(2), 177. https://doi.org/10.3917/come.085.0177

Seniguer, H. (2015). Communauté, « communautarisme » et islam en France : y a-t-il un « communautarisme » musulman ? *Droit social,* (9), 664.

Serres, D., & Cluzeau, A. (s. d.). La Cybercriminalité nouveaux enjeux de la protection des données – Memoire Online. Consulté 17 septembre 2016, à l'adresse http://www.memoireonline.com/04/09/2033/m_La-Cybercriminalite-nouveaux-enjeux-de-la-protection-des-donnees3.html

Sossie, A. (1990). Sellam (S.) Être musulman aujourd'hui. *Archives de sciences sociales des religions, 72*(1), 298.

Sounaye, A. (2012). Heirs of the Sheikh Izala and its Appropriation of Usman Dan Fodio in Niger. Cahiers d'études africaines, N 206-207(2), 427–447.

Spitaels, G. (2005). *La triple insurrection islamiste*. Luc Pire Éditions.

Stener, C. (2015). *Exposée: Djihad 4.0*. Bod – Books on Demand.

Tavernier, A. (2001). Isabelle Garcin-Marrou : terrorisme, médias et démocratie. *Études de communication. Langages, information, médiations,* (24), 147-149.

Thomson, D. (2014). *Les Français jihadistes*. Les Arènes.

Tournier, V. (2011). Modalités et spécificités de la socialisation des jeunes musulmans en France. Résultats d'une enquête grenobloise. *Revue française de sociologie, 52*(2), 311-352.

Trévidic, M. (2013). *Terroristes*. JC Lattès.

Valeri, M. (2014). « J'ai respiré l'air de la liberté. » La légitimation autoritaire au Bahreïn et en Oman à l'épreuve du « printemps arabe ». *Critique internationale,* (61), 107-126.

Vignolle, F., & Ahmed-chaouch, A. (2014). *La France du Djihad*. Éditions Du Moment.

Warren, M. J. (1998). Cyber terrorism (p. 429-438). Présenté à SEC '98 : international conference on information security. Consulté à l'adresse http://cat.inist.fr/?Amodele=affichen&cpsidt=1810385

Wybo, J., Gouttas, C., Freyssinet, É., & Lions, P. (2015). L'impact des réseaux sociaux dans la gestion des crises et le cybercrime. *Sécurité et stratégie, 18*(3), 37-43.

Zeghal, M. (2002). Les usages du savoir et de la violence : quelques réflexions autour du 11 septembre. *Politique étrangère, 67*(1), 21–38. https://doi.org/10.3406/polit.2002.5153

Zünd, C. (2016). Comment préparer un acte terroriste depuis la Suisse via Skype et Facebook. *Le Temps.*

APPENDIX 7.
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SELECTED WORKS PUBLISHED IN ARABIC

Al-Ayadi I.H. (juin 2015), « L'organisation terroriste de Daesh : le droit de protection et de sanction égyptien 1/2 » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/38086

– (juin 2015), « L'organisation terroriste de Daesh : le droit de protection et de sanction égyptien 2/2 » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/38098

Abdallah M. (janvier 2015), « L'approche culturelle pour étudier les origines cognitives du terrorisme » (dossier), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/36518

– (novembre 2014), « Les stratégies de lutte contre le terrorisme en Égypte » (dossier), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/16335

Abdel Aziz Y. (novembre 2015), « La stratégie médiatique de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Masri al Youm. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.almasryalyoum.com/news/details/850625

Abdel-Aziz Y. (novembre 2015), « Daesh et le combat médiatique » (article d'opinion), DW. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.dw.com/ar/داعش-المل-يُواجَهّ-بعد-استراتيجية-إعلامية-a-18878605/متكاملة

Abdel-Baqi M. (août 2015), « L'organisation de l'Etat à Khorasan : de la genèse en Afghanistan et de ce qui est advenu » (rapport), Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2015/08/20158237451156950.html

Abdel-Fattah N. (avril 2014), « Les médias et le terrorisme : les visions ambiguës », (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/3703

Abdel-Wahid M. (février 2016), « L'organisation de l'Etat sur les côtes libyennes encourage l'intervention internationale », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Abou al-Maali M. (juillet 2015), « La concurrence entre 'l'Etat islamique' et 'Al-Qaeda' réchauffe la situation dans le grand désert » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2015/07/20157191155358221.html

Abazid A. (juillet 2014), « Le paysage syrien après Deir ez-Zor : l'Etat, Al-Nosra et la révolution » (étude), Édition de l'Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/research/المشهد-السوري-بعد-دير-الزور-تحدي-الوجو/

Abdel-Sabour, S. (2014). Digital Terrorism: The Uses of Social Networks by Armed Groups. Al-Mostaqbal Center for Research and Studies, (2).

Abou Haniyya H. & Abou Rommane M. (2015), L'organisation de l'Etat islamique … la crise sunnite et le conflit sur le djihad globalisé, Amman, Frederich Epot. (juin 2015), « La montée de 'l'Etat islamique'… les fondements et les causes » (article d'opinion). Consulté à l'adresse http://all4syria.info/Archive/225449 (janvier 2015), « L'arsenal médiatique de l'Organisation de l'Etat islamique : l'armée électronique du califat » (article d'opinion), Arabi 21.

Abtadoun Chafei (mai 2016), « L'organisation de l'Etat en Somalie : entre l'illusion et la réalité », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Achour O. (juillet 2015), « L'organisation de la 'province de Sinaï' : l'essor militaire et les conséquences politiques » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. (mars 2016), « Les secrets de la résilience et du combat de l'Organisation de l'Etat » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2016/03/160310072841655.html

Al-Ahmad A. (février 2015), « Daesh… la troisième génération des groupes terroristes » (article d'opinion), Al-Riyad. Consulté à l'adresse

Al-Amari A. (octobre 2014), « Les recrutées de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4019390

Al-Azbawi Y. (dir., 2015), Daesh. Études de la structure de l'organisation, La Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Al-Amin H. (juin 2016), « Daesh aux Etats-Unis » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Al-Amir Ould Sidi A. (mars 2015), « Bokoharam et la juxtaposition des contextes », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Alaoui al-Cheikh al-H. (février 2016), « Le conflit entre Al-Qaeda et l'Organisation de l'Etat en Afrique », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Demni B. (mai 2016), « Les tunisiens luttent contre le terrorisme » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Diwani A. (septembre 2014), « La coalition internationale contre Daesh : le rôle et les problématiques » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/11263

Al-Hachimi H. (2015), Le monde de Daesh. De la genèse à la restauration du califat, Bagdad, Dar Babel & Dar al-Hikma.

– (août 2015), « L'Organisation de l'Etat (Daesh) : la suite ou la fin » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/issues/2015/08/201581085853684278.html

Al-Hinnachi A. (mai 2015), « Le terrorisme globalisé : les combattants tunisiens en Syrie », Chourouf Hanaa (review), National Center for Research &Opinion Poll, Tunis.

Al-Kabissi Y. (mai 2013), « Le salafisme en Iraq » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Khayoun R. et d'autres (dir., 2015), La lutte contre le terrorisme. Concepts, stratégies et modèles, Dubaï, Al Mesbar Studies & Research Center.

Al-Mo'addib H. (mars 2015), « Le terrorisme en Tunisie : entre la fragilité de la situation intérieure et les complications de la situation régionale », Beyrouth, Carnegie Middle East Center.

Al-Mtiri M., Al-Qahtani et d'autres (2015), « Le pouvoir invisible de dans les nouveaux médias » (étude), Arabie saoudite, Université du roi Saoud.

Al-Samadi F. (dir., novembre 2014), « L'Organisation de l'Etat : la genèse, l'impact et l'avenir » (dossier), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Kanouri Id. (date ?), « L'Etat virtuel…la stratégie médiatique de Daesh », Rawabet Center.

Al-Khatib L. (juin 2015), « La stratégie de l'Organisation de l'Etat islamique » (étude), Carnegie Middle East Center, Beyrouth.

Al-Mo'addib H. & Fahmi G. (octobre 2015), « Le marché du djihad : la radicalization en Tunisie » (étude), Beyrouth, Carnegie Middle East Center.

Al-Mostafa H. (avril 2016), « L'Etat de Daesh et Ibn Khaldoun » (article d'opinion), Al-Arabi al-Jadid. Consulté à l'adresse https://www.alaraby.co.uk/opinion/2016/4/28/دولة-داعش-وابن-خلدون-1

– (octobre 2014), « Daesh s'étend » (article d'opinion), Al-Arabi al-Jadid. Consulté à l'adresse https://www.alaraby.co.uk/opinion/2014/10/29/التحالف-ضد-الحلفاء-داعش-تتمدد

Al-Mostafa H. et Al-Hays A. (août 2014), « La psychologie de Daesh » (étude), Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/سيكولوجيا-داعش.pdf

Al-Othaymin I. (2015), « Daesh… la propagande médiatique et la construction de l'imaginaire » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse www.alyaum.com/article/4089740

Al-Qasir Kamal (juin 2015), « L'Organisation de l'Etat en Lybie » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Arif M. N. (juillet 2016), « La lutte cognitive contre la violence argumentée par la religion » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/40297

Atif A. (février 2015), « Comment combattre le nouveau cancer terroriste ? » (dossier), Dubaï, Futur Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.futurecenter.ae/analys.php?analys=394

'Atwan A. (2015), L'Etat islamique : les origines, la sauvagerie et l'avenir, Beyrouth, Dar al-Saqi.

Bchara A. (mai 2015), « A propos de ce qu'on appelle radicalization » (éditorial), Politiques arabes, (14).

Chams M. (janvier 2016), « L'idéologie de l'Organisation de l'Etat » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Charfi M. (2015), La sortie de la radicalization. Non pour la perte de l'identité, Alger, Dar-al-Qasaba.

Daoud H. (hiver 2016), « Les tribus irakiens en terre de djihad » (article), Omran, (15).

Eid Badri Mohamed (juillet 2015), « 'Daesh' et la sécurité du Golfe : d'une menace probable au danger réel », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Habib K. (septembre 2014), « Le monde lutte contre la sauvagerie de Daesh » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/11205

Hachem A. (date ?), « Entre les pauvres et les musulmans : les quatre erreurs autour du terrorisme dans le monde » (dossier), Le Caire, Centre régional pour les études stratégiques. Consulté à l'adresse http://rsgleb.org/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=675

Hassan Hassan (juin 2015), « L'Organisation de l'Etat islamique : les origines idéologiques et le contexte politique » (étude), Carnegie Middle East Center, Beyrouth.

Hassan Harith (juin 2015), « L'organisation de l'Etat en Iraq. Au cœur des failles du système politique » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Ibrahim M., Assila S. & Aliba A. (janvier 2015), « Sinaï et le terrorisme : entre les priorités de la sécurité nationale et les nécessités de la sécurité régionale », Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/36595

Imad A. (2016). Le salafisme et les salafistes. L'identité et la distinction. Une lecture de l'expérience libanaise, Beyrouth, Centre de la civilisation pour le développement de la pensée islamique.

Ismail J. (décembre 2015), « Les nouvelles provinces : 'Daesh' en Asie centrale » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Jassim S. (avril 2015), « Les djihadistes d'Indonésie : du mouvement de Dar-al islam à l'organisation de l'Etat » (dossier), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies, Doha. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2016/04/160404071800641.html

Khachana R. (septembre 2015), « L'extension de Daesh en Afrique du Nord » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Kamel M. (octobre 2015), « Daesh en Arabie saoudite » (étude), Bagdad, Al- Nahrain Center for Strategic Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alnahrain.iq/?p=2660

Khajiqchi J. (mars 2016), « L'armée des djihadistes qui combattent Daesh » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Khalid G. (2015), Daesh. Du califat de l'Etat à l'Etat du califat, Beyrouth, Al-Forat (dist.).

Kharbouch M. S. (juin 2016), « De la légitimité révolutionnaire à Daesh : Les politiques des révolutionnaires arabes et l'émergence des Daeshiens » (rapport), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/40272

Legrand Philex (juillet 2014), « La stratégie colonisatrice de Daesh en Syrie », Paris, Arab Reform Initiative.

Makram R. (juillet 2015), « Les médias djihadistes : comment les organisations djihadistes investissent les nouveaux médias », Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.rcssmideast.org/Article/3605/كيف-توظف-الجماعات-الجهادية-في-مصر-وسائل-الإعلام-الحديثة#.V_UGg2W1vww

Mas'oud Belhaj A. (date ?), « Le terrorisme islamisé: la crime contre l'humanité », Londres, Center for Strategic and Diplomatic Studies.

Mnaymneh H. (juin 2016), « Désamorcer l'héritage de l'Organisation de 'l'Etat islamique' » (article semi-académique), Washington Institute. Consulté à l'adresse http://rawabetcenter.com/archives/28455

Mohamed al-Hajj S.(dir.), Le salafisme djihadiste en Tunisie, Tunis, Tunis, Centre tunisien des études stratégiques, 2014.

Mohamed K. (novembre 2014), « Le recrutement via les réseaux sociaux. Les combattantes de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4030338

– (novembre 2014), « 'Les lionceaux du Tawhid'… Daesh implique les enfants dans la radicalization et le terrorisme » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4025641

Mohyeddine C. (juin 2016), « La radicalité égyptienne. Les motivations des jeunes pour la violence armée », Paris, Arab Reform Initiative.

Nabil O. (janvier 2015), « Les atrocités de Daesh » (rapport), Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/142/شعاد-شحاوفلـاـبـاكتراو

Omar K. (avril 2014), « La Lybie : les entités politiques et militaires dans le conflit politique » (étude), Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/libya.pdf

Onowa F. (mars 2015), « Bokoharam et les 'suicidaires' de Nigéria » (rapport, Mohamed al-Mostafa, trad.), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Qabalane M. (janvier 2015), « La montée de l'organisation de l'Etat et les transformations du système régional au Machreq », Politiques arabes, (12)

Qarami A. (juillet 2015), « Le djihad des femmes : le terrorisme au féminin » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/38116

Qosay H. (2016), La problématique de la radicalization religieuse dans la pensée arabe contemporaine, Le Caire, Éditions de l'Institut Arabe pour les recherches et les études. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alecso.org/site/2016-02-02-13-47-43/726-2016-03-15-19-24-48.html

– (2016), L'islam radical. Entre le fondamentalisme et la modernité, Damas, Dar-al-Fikr.

Rachid T. (décembre 2015), « Daesh recule sur le front médiatique » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4106477

– (février 2016), « Le combat perdu contre Daesh sur les médias sociaux » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4119536

– (février 2016), « Comment Daesh utilise les nouveaux médias ? » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4121027

Sakhi G.A. (dir., 2015), Le terrorisme. Le modèle de Daesh, Les Cahiers d'Al-Nahrain, (2). Consulté à l'adresse https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B0unzeP74kahNW5oQ1dTR1VqcFU/view

Wahid M. (décembre 2015), « La guerre de l'image : lecture des messages médiatiques de Daesh » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Yahmad H. (2015), Les salafistes djihadistes tunisiens, Tunis, Dar ad-Diwan.

Yassin A. (juillet 2015), « Lutter contre le terrorisme : le rôle des médias égyptiens » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/39211

Zaydane A. (janvier 2015), « L'avenir de l'Organisation de l'Etat en Afghanistan et au Pakistan » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

– (mars 2016), « Rapport du colloque 'Le terrorisme en Afrique : la réalité et le traitement' » (review), Londres, Center for Strategic and Diplomatic Studies. Consulté à l'adresse

– (mars 2016), « La Tunisie et le 'terrorisme djihadiste globalisé' » (review), Londres, Center for Strategic and Diplomatic Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.csds-center.com/ تونس-والإرهاب-الجهادي-المعولم-انفجاج/

– (2014), L'avenir des mouvements islamistes dans le monde arabe (livre), Le Caire, Éditions de l'Arab Center for Research & Studies.

– (2016), L'organisation de Daesh. La genèse, les crimes et la confrontation (livre), Le Caire, Édition de l'Observatoire d'Al-Azhar.

– (octobre 2014), « La répartition militaire et idéologique des brigades combattantes en Syrie » (rapport), Paris, Arab Reform Initiative.

– (2015), « Les perceptions de Daesh par les arabes » (sondage), L'Institut Arabe. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.newsyrian.net/ar/article/نظرة-العرب-إلى-داعش-قراءة-في-نتائج-المؤشر-العربي-2015#sthash.xUzKMzAJ.vI84Ce4t.dpbs

– (août 2016), « La dualité de l'ignorance et de la radicalization » (rapport), L'Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ ArticleID/9202/ثنائية-الجهل-والتطرف

– (juin 2016), « Pourquoi des adolescentes rejoignent l'Organisation de Daesh » (rapport), L'Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/7938/لماذا-تنضم-الفتيات-المراهقات-لتنظيم-داعش؟

– (décembre 2015), « La fabrique de la terreur chez les tatars de l'époque » (étude), Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/147/صناعة-الرعب-عند-تتار-العصر

– (décembre 2015), « Rapport sur le numéro 7 du magazine Dar al-islam », Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ ArticleID/157/تقرير-حول-مجلة-دار-الإسلام-العدد-السابع

– (décembre 2015), « L'usage des médias sociaux par Daesh » (étude), Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/160/ استخدام-داعش-لوسائل-التواصل-الاجتماعي

– (décembre 2015), « Étude statistique sur les branches de Daesh », Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/158/ دراسة-إحصائية-حول-أذرع-داعش

APPENDIX 8.
BIBLIOGRAPHY OF SELECTED WORKS PUBLISHED IN CHINESE

ANI. (1974). India, China will build closer cooperation on challenges of terrorism, extremism: PM Modi. Administrative techniques of rehabilitation facility operations. Charles C Thomas.

ASA. (2002). China: China's anti-terrorism legislation and repression in the Xinjiang uighur autonomous region. Amnesty International.

Bai Guanfeng. (2015). 宗教极端思想向妇女和青少年渗透问题研究——以兵团第三师四十四团十八连为例. 兵团党校学报(1), 40-43.

Chen Haiqiang. (2014). 社交网络与恐怖主义. 中国信息安全(7), 77-78.

Chen Jin. (2001).网络对青少年犯罪的影响及防治对策研究. 中国人民公安大学学报(社会科学版) (3), 102-105.

Chen Kai. (2010). "愤青"与恐怖主义——试析青年参与恐怖活动的意识形态因素. 当代青年研究 (7), 18-25.

Chen, H. (2007). Exploring extremism and terrorism on the web: the dark web project. Pacific Asia Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (Vol.4430, pp.1-20). Springer-Verlag.

Communication & Society, 151–67

Du Juan. (2016). 当前我国网络恐怖主义的特点，原因及对策——以恐怖活动新变化为切入点. Journal of Yunnan Police College.

Ely Karmon. (2009). Pakistan, the Radicalization of the Jihadist movement and the challenge to China. Journal of Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies (in Asia).

Feng Hua. (2009). 近年新疆周边伊斯兰极端主义与新疆稳定问题研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 新疆师范大学).

Geng, L., Ming-Li, L. I., & University, X. (2016). Beneficial enlightenment of governance religious extremism in Uzbekistanon combat extramalization in China. Journal of Hebei United University.

Gunaratna R., Acharya A., &Wang P. (2010). Hui Muslims: The milieu of radicalization and extremism. Palgrave Macmillan US.

Heathershaw, J., & Montgomery, D. W. (2014). The myth of post-Soviet Muslim radicalization in the Central Asian republics. Chatham House, 11.

IPAC. (2015). Online activism and social media usage among indonesian extremists : Report No.24. Institut for policy analysis of conflict

Jiang Yanhong. (2005). 网络对青少年心理的影响及对策. 希望月报 (18).

Jin Y. J. (2014). 宗教极端主义的产生和特点. 中国宗教(6), 20-23.

Khalid, I., & Leghari, M. E. (2014). Radicalization of youth in Southern Punjab. South Asian Studies. 2014, 29

Laura Aralbayeva (Li Zhang). (2011). 宗教与政治极端主义及其在中亚的扩散. (Doctoral dissertation, 浙江大学).

Lefevre, C. (2014). Extremist social media use in Indonesia (research analysis). https://globalpublicpolicywatch.org/category/social-media/

Le Yuan, Yang Boxu. (2010). 网络极化现象研究——基于四个中文bbs论坛的内容分析. 青年研究 (2), 1-12.

Li J., Zhao Y. (2015) 新疆地区宗教极端主义与民族分裂主义的来源与发展. Journal of People's Public Security University of China (Social Sciences Edition).

Li Xiuxiu. (2016). 社交媒体上的恐怖活动研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 华东政法大学).

Li Yuxiao, Zhou Shuya. (2014). 印度极左翼恐怖主义研究. 青年科学月刊 (8), 197-197.

Lin Ziqing. (2015). 盘点：东突在中国的15次重大恐怖袭击. 新浪历史。

Liu Ting. (2016). 新媒体恐怖主义及应对策略探析。陕西社会主义学院学报，2016(3).

Liu Ting. (2016). 社交媒体恐怖主义及招募策略探析. 中央社会主义学院学报 (4), 107-111.

Liu Xiaomei. (2015). 刍议青少年暴恐犯罪新动态. 青少年犯罪问题 (6), 60-66.

Liu Zaiqi. (2006). 中亚伊斯兰恐怖主义问题探析. 求索 (6), 103-105.

Liu Zhenpeng. (2011). 新疆恐怖活动犯罪的特点与控制措施. (Doctoral dissertation, 吉林大学).

Liu, G. S., & Yan-Xia, L. I. (2006). Cyber terrorism and its prevention. Journal of Shandong Police College.

Lv Chenmei. (2015). 新时期印度尼西亚反恐困境和策略. 东南亚纵横 (6), 37-41.

M Yusuf. (2008). Prospects of youth radicalization in Pakistan: Implications for U.S. policy. Brookings Institution.

Ma Y. & Wang J. P. (2003). 中亚的恐怖主义探源. 世界经济与政治 (2), 39-44.

Mao Xinjuan, Zhang Zhou & Wang Shaojie. (2016). "东突"分裂势力对新疆青少年渗透活动特点及其应对. 中国人民公安大学学报 (社会科学版), 32(1), 42-47.

Nakhleh, E. A., Sakurai, K., & Penn, M. (2008). Islam in Japan: A Cause for Concern? Asia policy, (5), 61-104.

O'Brien, K. J., & Deng, Y. (2015). Repression backfires: tactical radicalization and protest spectacle in rural china. Journal of Contemporary China, 24(93), 457-470.

Osman, M.N.M (2016). ISIS and Islamic Radicalization in Southeast Asia. Georgetown Journal of Asian Affairs, Online https://asianstudies.georgetown.edu/sites/asianstudies/files/files/upload/gjaa._2.2_osman.pdf

Penn, M. (2008). Public faces and private spaces: Islam in the Japanese context. Asia policy, 5(1), 89-104.

Pu Shi Institute for Social Science http://www.pacilution.com/

Qian Lu. (2015). DAESH 青少年招募机制探析. (Doctoral dissertation, 云南大学).

Ramakrishna K. (2011). The four mutations of violent muslim extremism in Southeast Asia: Some implications for a cognitive immunization policy. Asia Policy. 12(12): 13-19.

Ruisheng Li. (2016). 塔吉克斯坦恐怖主义犯罪及其预防研究. 犯罪研究 (3).

Sakurai, K. (2008). Muslims in contemporary Japan. Asia policy, 5(1), 69-87.

Shan W. & Ping X. J. (2014). Rising terrorism and China's new policy in Xinjiang. East Asian Policy, 06(4), 113-126.

Shen X. C. & Yang S. (2014). 当代西方恐怖主义激进化研究主要路径述评. 兰州大学学报(社会科学版), 42(3), 36-43.

Shu Hongshui, Wang Gang. (2016). 对我国网络恐怖主义犯罪的探讨. Journal of Shandong Police College.

Sun Xianwei &Zhai Jinpeng. (2008). "东突" 恐怖主义活动发展特点及防范打击对策. 中国人民公安大学学报(社会科学版), 24(4), 21-26.

Sun, D. (2010). China and the global jihad network. Journal of the Middle East & Africa, 1(2), 196-207.

Wang Chuanmei. (2013). 中国西部民族地区恐怖主义犯罪心理分析及其预防. 犯罪研究 (2), 66-71.

Wang Fei. (2015). 伊斯兰教宗教极端思想新媒体传播的特点. 青年记者 (36), 88-89.

Wang Juanjuan &Yang Wenwu. (2014). 马尔代夫恐怖活动的特点、原因与马政府的应对. 现代国际关系 (8)

Wang, G. (2012). An analysis of cyber-terrorism under the international relations theory. Journal of Chongqing Jiaotong University, 122(15).

Wang, X. (2016). Cyber-terrorism and cyber-security cooperation under the one belt and one road initiative. Global Review.

Wei Wu. (2009). 简述中亚地区面临的恐怖主义威胁. 青年科学 (3).

Wei Yingjie. (2008). 东突势力与中亚伊斯兰极端势力比较研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 兰州大学).

Wo Xiaojing. (2016). 从源头切断恐怖主义的网络传播。中国社会科学报。

Wu Hao. (2015). 恐怖主义幽灵袭扰下的欧盟国家反恐政策——以青年群体为视角. 中国青年研究 (8), 111-116.

Wu Y. G. (2002). 伊斯兰原教旨主义、宗教极端主义与国际恐怖主义辨析. 国外社会科学 (1), 14-20.

Wu Y. G. (2004). 宗教极端主义的成因与态势. 中国宗教 (2), 12-13.

Xiao, E. (2016). Behind the scenes : here's why your VPN is down in China. Technode, Mar 17

Xenos, M., A. Vromen, & B.D. Loader. (2014). The Great Equalizer? Patterns of Social Media Use and Youth Political Engagement in Three Advanced Democracies. Information,

Yang S. (2014). "三股势力" 已合成一体 当前恐怖活动新特点新动向. 人民论坛 (16), 42-43.

Yang S. (2016). 2015 年伊斯兰极端主义新特点. 人民论坛 (3), 64-65.

Yang S. (2017). 国际恐怖主义新特征. 人民论坛 (1).

Yang S. & Jiang H. J. (2014). 伊斯兰复兴和伊斯兰极端主义. 新疆师范大学学报哲学社会科学版 (2), 59-64.

Yang S. & Jiang H. J. (2014). "圣战派萨拉菲" 在中亚的活动及其影响. 现代国际关系 (5), 39-46.

Yang S. & Li Y. F. (2008). 中亚伊斯兰极端主义. 俄罗斯中亚东欧研究. (5), 62-70.

Yang S. & Lin Y. F. (2008). 中亚伊斯兰极端主义. 俄罗斯东欧中亚研究 (5), 62-70.

Yang S. & Xu H. (2004). 全球化时代的新恐怖主义. 兰州大学学报 (社会科学版), 32(6), 6-13.

Yang S., Jiang H. & Wang H.(2014). The activities of "jihadist salafi" and its influence on Central Asia. Contemporary International Relations, 24(5), 96-113.

Yong, P. I. (2004). Research on cyber-terrorism crime & its control method. Wuhan University Journal.

Yu, Y. (1993). The radicalization of china in the twentieth century.

Zaman, R., & Mohammadi, A. A. (2014). Trends in Student Radicalization across University Campuses in Afghanistan. Afghan Institute for Strategic Studies.

Zhang Chi. (2013). 新疆极端势力内控报告：近年数次恐袭无当地民众参与。凤凰周刊 2014年6月14。

Zhao T. (2010). Social cohesion and Islamic radicalization: Implications from the Uighur insurgency. Journal of Strategic Security.

Zhi-Gang, Y. U., & Guo, Z. L. (2015). Cyberterrorism crimes and responses from laws in China: analysis and reflection based on 100 random cases. Journal of Henan University.

Zhou Ming. (2015). 中亚五国对阿富汗局势的应对:历史与趋势. 南亚研究 (2), 115-138.

Zhou X. Y. (2004). 论中亚 "三股势力" 对中国西部新疆安全的影响. (Doctoral dissertation, 新疆大学).

Zhou Xiefan. (2002). 恐怖主义与宗教问题. 西亚非洲(1), 33-38.

Zhu Y. B. & Yang S. (2006). 网络恐怖主义问题初探. 中州学刊(5), 140-142.

Zhu Y. B. & Yang Y. A. (2010). 阿富汗安全形势及其对中亚的影响. 兰州大学学报社会科学版, 38(5), 60-66.

APPENDIX 9.
GENERAL PLURILINGUAL BIBLIOGRAPHY

Abazid A. (juillet 2014), « Le paysage syrien après Deir ez-Zor : l'Etat, Al-Nosra et la révolution » (étude), Édition de l'Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/research/المشهد-السوري-بعد-دير-الزور-تحدي-الوجو/

Abdallah M. (janvier 2015), « L'approche culturelle pour étudier les origines cognitives du terrorisme » (dossier), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/36518

Abdel Aziz Y. (novembre 2015), « La stratégie médiatique de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Masri al Youm. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.almasryalyoum.com/news/details/850625

Abdel-Aziz Y. (novembre 2015), « Daesh et le combat médiatique » (article d'opinion), DW. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.dw.com/ar/داعش-مل-شُجاجَه-بعد-يُواجَه-استراتيجية-إعلامية/a-18878605المكتملة/

Abdel-Baqi M. (août 2015), « L'organisation de l'Etat à Khorasan : de la genèse en Afghanistan et de ce qui est advenu » (rapport), Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2015/08/20158237451156950.html

Abdel-Fattah N. (avril 2014), « Les médias et le terrorisme : les visions ambiguës », (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/3703

Abdel-Wahid M. (février 2016), «L'organisation de l'Etat sur les côtes libyennes encourage l'intervention internationale », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Abid, N., Aouadi, M., Ben Mohamed, M., Bakhti, A., Djemali, J., Jmila, H., Triki, A. (2011). Le rôle des médias et des TIC dans les « révolutions arabes » : l'exemple de la Tunisie. Chimères, 75(1), 219.

Abou al-Maali M. (juillet 2015), « La concurrence entre 'l'Etat islamique' et 'Al-Qaeda' réchauffe la situation dans le grand désert » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2015/07/20157191155358221.html

Abou Haniyya H. & Abou Rommane M. (2015), L'organisation de l'Etat islamique… la crise sunnite et le conflit sur le djihad globalisé, Amman, Frederich Epot. (juin 2015), « La montée de 'l'Etat islamique' […] les fondements et les causes » (article d'opinion). Consulté à l'adresse http://all4syria.info/Archive/225449 (janvier 2015), « L'arsenal médiatique de l'Organisation de l'Etat islamique : l'armée électronique du califat » (article d'opinion), Arabi 21.

Abtadoun Chafei (mai 2016), « L'organisation de l'Etat en Somalie : entre l'illusion et la réalité », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Achour O. (juillet 2015), « L'organisation de la 'province de Sinaï' : l'essor militaire et les conséquences politiques » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. (mars 2016), « Les secrets de la résilience et du combat de l'Organisation de l'Etat » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2016/03/160310072841655.html

Aclimandos, T. (2010). L'islam politique égyptien. Confluences Méditerranée, 75(4), 167. Https://doi.org/10.3917/come.075.0167

Adams, Josh, & Roscigno, Vincent J. (2005). White Supremacists, Oppositional Culture and the World Wide Web. Social Forces, 84(2), 759-778.

Adams, Josh, & Roscigno, Vincent. (2004/08/14/2004 Annual Meeting, San Francisco). White Supremacists, Oppositional Culture, and the World Wide Web.

Adrião, K. G., Toneli, M. J. F., & Maluf, S. W. (2011b). O movimento feminista brasileiro na virada do século XX: reflexões sobre sujeitos políticos na interface com as noções de democracia e autonomia. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?Id=38121390002

Agarwal, Swati, & Sureka, Ashish. (2015). Topic-Specific YouTube Crawling to Detect Online Radicalization Databases in Networked Information Systems (Vol. 8999, pp. 133-151).

Agarwal, Swati, & Sureka, Ashish. (2015). Using KNN and SVM Based One-Class Classifier for Detecting Online Radicalization on Twitter Distributed Computing and Internet Technology, Icdcit 2015 (Vol. 8956, pp. 431-442).

Agences. (2014). Une coalition internationale contre l'Etat islamique. Le Temps.

Ahmed Ghotme, R. (2012). Strategic redirection of Al-Qaeda: from the leadership of Osama bin Laden to mass- dimension? Civilizar Ciencias Sociales y Humanas, 12(22), 111–128.

Aistrope, Tim. (2016). Social media and counterterrorism strategy. Australian Journal of International Affairs, 70(2), 121-138.

Akinwumi, Akinbola E. The Banality of the ImMEDIAte Spectacle: Globalization, Terrorism, Radical Cultural Denigration, and the Condition of Hollowity (Vol. 3): Bishop's University.

Al-Ahmad A. (février 2015), « Daesh… la troisième génération des groupes terroristes » (article d'opinion), Al-Riyad. Consulté à l'adresse

Al-Alaoui al-Cheikh al-H. (février 2016), « Le conflit entre Al-Qaeda et l'Organisation de l'Etat en Afrique », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Amari A. (octobre 2014), « Les recrutées de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4019390

Al-Amin H. (juin 2016), « Daesh aux Etats-Unis » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Al-Amir Ould Sidi A. (mars 2015), « Bokoharam et la juxtaposition des contextes », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Alarid, M. (2016). Recruitment and Radicalization: The Role of Social Media and New Technology. Impunity, May 24, 2016

Alava, S. (2014). La Francophonie à la croisée des savoirs : l'offre de formation sur la Francophonie dans le monde. In La langue française dans le monde 2014 : Rapport Organisation Internationale de la Francophonie (Vol. 2014, p. 323 – 341). OIF.

Alava, S., & Morales, L. (2015). Usages numériques non formels chez les jeunes et performance scolaire. Nouveaux c@ hiers de la recherche en éducation, 18(2), 138-164.

Al-Ayadi I.H. (juin 2015), « L'organisation terroriste de Daesh : le droit de protection et de sanction égyptien 1/2 » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/38086

Al-Azbawi Y. (dir., 2015), Daesh. Études de la structure de l'organisation, La Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Aldeèmeh, M. (2015b). Pourquoi nous sommes tous des djihadistes : j'étais en Syrie. La Boîte à Pandore.

Al-Demni B. (mai 2016), « Les tunisiens luttent contre le terrorisme » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Diwani A. (septembre 2014), « La coalition internationale contre Daesh : le rôle et les problématiques » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/11263

Alghamdi, Hanan M., & Selamat, Ali. (2012). Topic Detections in Arabic Dark Websites Using Improved Vector Space Model. 2012 4th Conference on Data Mining and Optimization (Dmo), 6-12.

Al-Hachimi H. (2015), Le monde de Daesh. De la genèse à la restauration du califat, Bagdad, Dar Babel & Dar al-Hikma.

Al-Hinnachi A. (mai 2015), « Le terrorisme globalisé : les combattants tunisiens en Syrie », Chourouf Hanaa (review), National Center for Research &Opinion Poll, Tunis.

Ali, Mohammed Mahmood, Mohammed, Khaja Moizuddin, & Rajamani, Lakshmi. (2014). Framework for Surveillance of Instant Messages in Instant messengers and Social neworking sites using Data Mining and Ontology 2014 Ieee Students' Technology Symposium (pp. 297-302).

Al-Kabissi Y. (mai 2013), « Le salafisme en Iraq » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Kanouri Id. (date ?), « L'Etat virtuel…la stratégie médiatique de Daesh », Rawabet Center.

Al-Khatib L. (juin 2015), « La stratégie de l'Organisation de l'Etat islamique » (étude), Carnegie Middle East Center, Beyrouth.

Al-Khayoun R. et d'autres (dir., 2015), La lutte contre le terrorisme. Concepts, stratégies et modèles, Dubaï, Al Mesbar Studies & Research Center.

Allievi, S. (2015). Les convertis à l'islam – Les nouveaux musulmans d'Europe. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.editions-harmattan.fr/index.asp?Navig=catalogue&obj=livre&no=7702

Al-Mo'addib H. & Fahmi G. (octobre 2015), « Le marché du djihad : la radicalization en Tunisie » (étude), Beyrouth, Carnegie Middle East Center.

Al-Mo'addib H. (mars 2015), « Le terrorisme en Tunisie : entre la fragilité de la situation intérieure et les complications de la situation régionale », Beyrouth, Carnegie Middle East Center.

Al-Mostafa H. (avril 2016), « L'Etat de Daesh et Ibn Khaldoun » (article d'opinion), Al-Arabi al-Jadid. Consulté à l'adresse https://www.alaraby.co.uk/opinion/2016/4/28/دولة-داعش-وابن-خلدون-1

Al-Mostafa H. et Al-Hays A. (août 2014), « La psychologie de Daesh » (étude), Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/wp-content/uploads/2014/08/سكولوجيا-داعش.pdf

Al-Mtiri M., Al-Qahtani et d'autres (2015), « Le pouvoir invisible de dans les nouveaux médias » (étude), Arabie saoudite, Université du roi Saoud.

Al-Othaymin I. (2015), « Daesh… la propagande médiatique et la construction de l'imaginaire » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4089740

Al-Qasir Kamal (juin 2015), « L'Organisation de l'Etat en Lybie » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Al-Rowaily, Khalid, Abulaish, Muhammad, Haldar, Nur Al-Hasan, & Al-Rubaian, Majed. (2015). BiSAL – A bilingual sentiment analysis lexicon to analyze Dark Web forums for cyber security. Digital Investigation, 14, 53-62.

Al-Samadi F. (dir., novembre 2014), « L'Organisation de l'Etat : la genèse, l'impact et l'avenir » (dossier), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Alvares, C & Dahlgren, P. (2016) *Populism, Extremism, and Media: Mapping an Uncertain Terrain.* European Journal of Communication (in press).

Amanullah, Zahed, Countering Violent Extremism: Understanding the Role of Former Extremists and Counter Messaging, Institute for Strategic Dialogue, September 2015

Amble, John Curtis. (2012). Combating terrorism in the new media environment. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 35(5), 339-353.

Amghar, S. (2008). Le salafisme en France : de la révolution islamique à la révolution conservatrice, (n° 40). Consulté à l'adresse http://emridnetwork.org/static/documents/21-mars/3-islam-en-europe/le-salafisme-en-france-de-la-revolution-islamique-a-la-revoluton-conservatrice.bfe4c9da50b8.pdf

Ammerman, F. Wade. (2012). A Case Study Exploration of Islamic Radicalization in America: Interpretations for Corporate Risk Management. (3519947 Ph.D.), Northcentral University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1030973387?accountid=10246

Andre, Virginie. (2012). "Neojihadism" and YouTube: Patani Militant Propaganda Dissemination and Radicalization. Asian Security, 8(1), 27-53. doi: 10.1080/14799855.2012.669207

Andre, Virginie. (2014). The Janus Face of New Media Propaganda: The Case of Patani Neojihadist YouTube Warfare and Its Islamophobic Effect on Cyber-Actors. Islam & Christian-Muslim Relations, 25(3), 335-356.

ANI. (1974). India, China will build closer cooperation on challenges of terrorism, extremism: PM Modi. Administrative techniques of rehabilitation facility operations. Charles C Thomas.

Antonio Cassese, P. (2015). Terrorisme et lutte armée. Manière de voir, N 140(4), 61.

Appelbaum, J., Müller-Maguhn, A., Zimmermann, J., & Assange, J. (2013). Menace sur nos libertés : Comment Internet nous espionne. Comment résister. Robert Laffont/bouquins/segher.

Argomaniz, Javier. (2015). European Union responses to terrorist use of the Internet. Cooperation & Conflict, 50(2), 250-268.

Arif M. N. (juillet 2016), « La lutte cognitive contre la violence argumentée par la religion » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/40297

ASA. (2002). China: China's anti-terrorism legislation and repression in the Xinjiang uighur autonomous region. Amnesty International.

Ashour, O. (2010). Online de-radicalization? Counter violent extremist narratives: Message, messenger and media strategy. Perspectives on Terrorism, 4 (6).

Atif A. (février 2015), « Comment combattre le nouveau cancer terroriste ? » (dossier), Dubaï, Futur Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.futurecenter.ae/analys.php?analys=394

Atmani, M. (2015). Au coeur de la cyberguerre entre Anonymous et djihadistes. Le Temps.

Atran, Scott, & Sageman, Marc. Connecting the dots. Bulletin of the Atomic Scientists, 62(4), 68-68.

Atton, Chris (2006) 'Far-right media on the internet: Culture, discourse and power'. New Media & Society 8(4): 573–587.

Aubrac, R. (2003). Terroristes ou résistants ? Topique, 83(2), 7. Https://doi.org/10.3917/top.083.0007

Awan, A. N., Hoskins, A., & O'Loughlin, B. (2011). Radicalization and media: Connectivity and terrorism in the new media ecology. London; New York: Routledge.

Awan, Akil N. (2007) 'Virtual Jihadist media: Function, legitimacy and radicalising efficacy'. European Journal of Cultural Studies 10(5): 589–408.

Awan, Akin N. (2007). Virtual jihadist media. European Journal of Cultural Studies, 10(3), 389-408.

Baines, Paul R., O'Shaughnessy, Nicholas J., Moloney, Kevin, Richards, Barry, Butler, Sara, & Gill, Mark. (2010). The dark side of political marketing Islamist propaganda, Reversal Theory and British Muslims. European Journal of Marketing, 44(3-4), 478-495.

Baker, Vicky. (2015). Social disturbance: From digital jihadis to hoaxes and propaganda, a look at how user-generated content lost its innocence. Index on Censorship, 44(1), 143-145.

Bardos, Gordon N. (2014). Jihad in the Balkans. World Affairs, 177(3), 73-79.

Barlett, J., & Miller, C. (2012). The edge of violence: Towards telling the difference between violent and non-violent radicalization. Terrorism and Political Violence, 24 (1), 1-21.

Barnett, Brett Aaron. (2005). Untangling the web of hate: Are online ,Äúhate sites,Äù deserving of First Amendment protection? (3193670 Ph.D.), Bowling Green State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305028910?accountid=10246

Bartlett, Jamie and Alex Krasodomski-Jones, 'Counter-speech examining content that challenges extremism online,' DEMOS, October 2015

Barzilai-Nahon, Karine, & Barzilai, Gad. (2005). Cultured Technology: The Internet and Religious Fundamentalism. Information Society, 21(1), 25-40.

Barzin, N. (2010). Propagande et attentats-suicide. Topique, 111(2), 59. Https://doi.org/10.3917/top.111.0059

Bates, Rodger, & Mooney, Mara. (2014). Distance Learning and Jihad: The Dark Side of the Force. Online Journal of Distance Learning Administration, 17(3).

Baudouï, R. (2009). Géopolitique du terrorisme. Armand Colin.

Baumard, P. (2012). Questions de futur. CNRS.

Bchara A. (mai 2015), « A propos de ce qu'on appelle radicalization » (éditorial), Politiques arabes, (14).

Beaule, S. (2000a). Il n'y a que des cauchemars et des angoisses, des delires… : lecture de la nouvelle fantastique et de science-fiction quebecoise depuis 1980. University of Toronto Quarterly, 69(4), 871.

Beauvallet, G., Berthet, C., Blecher, L., Bonnet, Y., Daloz, P., Herzog, J., … Bandini, A. (2014). Lutte contre le terrorisme : Blocage administratif de sites Internet : le Conseil national du numérique propose des alternatives plus efficaces et plus protectrices des libertés. Conseil national du numérique.

Belaala, S. (2008). Les facteurs de création ou de modification des processus de radicalization violente, chez les jeunes en particulier. Paris : CEIS.

Benberrah, M. (2015). La Tunisie en transition : Les usages numériques d'Ennahdha. Editions L'Harmattan.

Benichou, D., Khosrokhavar, F., & Migaux, P. (2015). Le jihadisme. EDI8.

Benjamin, D., Franco, S., & Hecker, M. (2006). Le terrorisme en perspective. Politique étrangère, Hiver (4), 887. Https://doi.org/10.3917/pe.064.0887

Benkada, S. (2004a). La revendication des libertés publiques dans le discours politique du nationalisme algérien et de l'anticolonialisme français (1919-1954). Insaniyat, 25-26, 179.

Benson, David C. (2014). Why the Internet Is Not Increasing Terrorism. Security Studies, 23(2), 293-328.

Berger, J. M. (2016) " Nazis vs. DAESH on Twitter: A Comparative Study of White Nationalist and DAESH Online Social Media Networks." Program on Extremism or the George Washington University.

Berger, J. M., and Jonathon Morgan. (2015) "The DAESH Twitter Census: Defining and describing the population of DAESH supporters on Twitter." The Brookings Project on US Relations with the Islamic World 3.20.

Berko, A. (2009). The path to paradise: The inner world of suicide bombers and their dispatchers. Washington, DC : Potomac Books.

Bermingham, Adam, Conway, Maura, McInerney, Lisa, O'Hare, Neil, & Smeaton, Alan F. (2009). Combining Social Network Analysis and Sentiment Analysis to Explore the Potential for Online Radicalization 2009 International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (pp. 231-236).

Bernard, J., Yann, R., & Jacques, L. (2006). Des flux et des territoires. Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Bernard, P. (2016). David Cameron veut imposer des tests d'anglais aux musulmanes. Le Temps.

Bérubé, M. (2015). Social networks, terrorism and counter-terrorism, Radical and connected. Sécurité et stratégie, 20(1), 78-80.

Besson, S. (2015). Pour Al-Qaida, tuer des Occidentaux est une question de survie. Le Temps.

Beyond Propaganda: Cyber Propaganda; From how to start a revolution to how to beat DAESH, Legatum Institute, November 2015

Bhui, Kamaldeep and Ibrahim, Yasmin (2013) 'Marketing the "radical": Symbolic communication and persuasive technologies in jihadist websites'. Transcultural Psychiatry 50(2): 216–234.

Bhui, Kamaldeep, & Ibrahim, Yasmin. (2013). Marketing the 'radical': Symbolic communication and persuasive technologies in jihadist websites. Transcultural Psychiatry, 50(2), 216-234.

Bibard, L. (2016). Terrorisme et féminisme : Le masculin en question. Aube

Biddle, S. (2015, March 13). Reddit Is So Racist White Supremacists Are Using it to Recruit. Retrieved May 18, 2015, from http://gawker.com/reddit-is-so-racist-white-supremacists-areusing-it-to-1691162974

Bizimana, A.-J. (2006). Les risques du journalisme dans les conflits armés. Communication. Information médias théories pratiques, (Vol. 25/1), 84-111. Https://doi.org/10.4000/communication.1511

Blackwood, L., Hopkins, N., & Reicher, S. (2015). From Theorizing Radicalization to Surveillance Practices: Muslims in the Cross Hairs of Scrutiny. Political Psychology.

Blanchard, A. L., & Markus, M. L. (2002, January). Sense of virtual community-maintaining the experience of belonging. In System Sciences, 2002. HICSS. Proceedings of the 35th Annual Hawaii International Conference on (pp. 3566-3575). IEEE.

Blanchard, G. (2007). La communication politique partisane sur Internet: des pratiques et des stratégies nouvelles? Doctoral dissertation, Université Stendhal, Grenoble.

Blanchart, J. (2016). Crimes du futur. Premier Parallèle.

Blom, A. (2011). Les « martyrs » jihadistes veulent-ils forcément mourir ? Revue française de science politique, 61(5), 867–891.

Bloom, Richard W. (2016). A bull market but whose bull is being gored? PsycCRITIQUES, 61(15).

Blumenfeld, Teri. (2012). Are Jihadists Crazy? Middle East Quarterly, 19(2), 3-13.

Bogomolov, T., & Chiera, B. (2013). A first approach to resolving ambiguity in hidden terrorist group detection in communications networks. 20th International Congress on Modelling and Simulation (Modsim2013), 120-126.

Boms, N. (janvier 0a). Immigration, radicalization et discours musulman en Europe : l'angle soufi. Outre-Terre, no 17(4), 247–257.

Bonnefoy, L. (2011). Le salafisme au Yémen : l'antichambre de la violence ? Salafism in Yemen. The antechamber of violence ? Transcontinentales : Sociétés, (7), 69–79.

Borel, S. (2016). Et Les Réseaux Sauveront Le Monde… ? Essai Sur l'idéologie Réticulaire. Editions Le Bord de l'eau, 2013. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.editionsbdl.com/fr/books/et-les-rseaux-sauveront-le-monde-essai-sur-lidologie-rticulaire/421/

Boruch, R al. (2004). The Campbell Collaboration. Brief Treatment and Crisis Intervention Vol. 4 No. 3

Borum, R. (2011). Radicalization into violent extremism: A review of social science theories. Journal of Strategic Security, 4 (4), 7-36.

Bosco, Francesca. (2013). Terrorist Use of the Internet Capacity Building in the Fight against Terrorism (Vol. 112, pp. 39-46).

Bossi, P., & Bricaire, F. (). Des agents infectieux armes du terrorisme. La Presse Medicale, 34(2), 147–148. Https://doi.org/10.1016/S0755-4982(05)83894-1

Bouchard, M (Ed). (2015). Social networks, terrorism and counter-terrorism: Radical and connected ». New York : Routledge.

Boukhobza, A. (2015). Jouissances djihadistes : Génèse d'une haine intellectuelle. Thèse de doctorat Université de Nice Côte d'Azur ;

Boulanger, P. (2014). Géopolitique des médias : Acteurs, rivalités et conflits. Armand Colin.

Boutih, M. (2016). Génération radicale. Le Débat, 189(2), 73. Https://doi.org/10.3917/deba.189.0073

Bouzar, D. (2006). Quelle éducation face au radicalisme religieux ? Dunod.

Bouzar, Dounia, Caupenne, Christophe, Sulayman, Valsan (2014) 'La Métamorphose de la jeune opérée par les nouveaux discours terroristes'. Rennes : Centre de Prévention contre les dérives sectaires liées à l'islam, http://www.bouzar-expertises.fr/metamorphose

Bowman-Grieve, Lorraine. (2009). Exploring 'Stormfront': A Virtual Community of the Radical Right. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 32(11), 989-1007.

Bozarslan, H. (2009). Le madhisme en Turquie : L' « incident de Menemen » en 1930. Revue des Mondes Musulmans et de la Méditerranée, (91), 297–320. Https://doi.org/10.4000/remmm.261

Bozarslan, H. (2009). Le madhisme en Turquie : L'« incident de Menemen » en 1930. Revue des Mondes Musulmans et de la Méditerranée, (91), 297–320. Https://doi.org/10.4000/remmm.261

Brachman, Jarret M. (2006). High-Tech Terror: Al-Qaeda's Use of New Technology. Fletcher Forum of World Affairs, 30(2), 149-164.

Brachman, Jarret M., & Levine, Alix N. (2011). You Too Can Be Awlaki! Fletcher Forum of World Affairs, 35(1), 25-46.

Braddock, Kurt H. (2012). Fighting words: The persuasive effect of online extremist narratives on the radicalization process. (3534650 Ph.D.), The Pennsylvania State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1275924546?accountid=10246

Bradforrs A., Frenett R. (2015). Becoming Mulan? Female Western Migrants to DAESH. Institute for Strategic Dialogue.

Bratten, L. Clare (2005) 'Online zealotry: la France du peuple virtuel (the France of virtual people)'. New Media & Society 7(4): 517–532.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2004). Islamic Radicalism Online: The Moluccan Mission of the Laskar Jihad in Cyberspace. Australian Journal of Anthropology, 15(3), 267-285.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2004). Islamic radicalism online: The Moluccan mission of the Laskar Jihad in cyberspace (English). The Australian journal of anthropology, 15(3), 267-285.

Bräuchler, Birgit. (2007). Religious Conflicts in Cyberage. Citizenship Studies, 11(4), 329-347

Briggs, Rachel & Feve, Sebastien (2014) Policy Briefing: Countering the Appeal of Extremism Online. London, UK: Institue for Strategic Dialogue, pp. 1-23.

Briggs, Rachel and Sebastien Feve in 'Review of Programs to Counter-Narratives of VIolent Extremism: What works and what are the implications for government?', Institute for Strategic Dialogue, 2013

Briggs, Rachel and Tanya Silverman, Western Foreign Fighters: Innovations in Responding to the Threat, Institute for Strategic Dialogue, December 2014

Brown, Ian, & Korff, Douwe. (2009). Terrorism and the proportionality of Internet surveillance. European Journal of Criminology, 6(2), 119-134.

Bruce, Gregor. (2013). Intrinsic and External Factors and Influences on the Motivation of Suicide Attackers. Journal of Military & Veterans' Health, 21(3), 27-33.

Bruchon-Schweitzer M. (2014). Psychologie de la santé. Paris: Dunod.

Buckingham, D 2003, Media education. Literacy, learning and contemporary culture, Polity, Cambridge.

Building Resilience Against Terrorism: Canada's Counter-terrorism Strategy, Canadian Government (2013) http://www.publicsafety.gc.ca/cnt/rsrcs/pblctns/rslnc-gnst-trrrsm/index-eng.aspx;

Bulinge, F. (2012). Un outil de décryptage de contenus manipulatoires : cas des groupes islamistes radicaux. Communication et organisation, (42), 175-190. Https://doi.org/10.4000/communicationorganisation.3938

Burstow, Bonnie. (2003). Surviving and Thriving by Becoming More 'Groupuscular': The Case of the Heritage Front. Patterns of Prejudice, 37(4), 415-428.

Caiani, Manuela, & Parenti, Linda. (2011). The Spanish extreme right and the Internet. A extrema-direita espanhola e a internet., 46(201), 719-740.

Cammaerts, Bart (2009) 'Radical pluralism and free speech in online public spaces: The case of North Belgian extreme right discourses'. International Journal of Cultural Studies 12(6): 555–575.

Cardon, D., & Granjon, F. (2014). Chapitre 6. Individualisation et auto-organisation. Contester, 2e éd.(1), 135-177.

Carré, O. (1983). Le combat-pour-Dieu et l'État islamique chez Sayyid Qotb, l'inspirateur du radicalisme islamique actuel. Revue française de science politique, 33(4), 680–705. https://doi.org/10.3406/rfsp.1983.394083

Cassim, F. (2012). Addressing the spectre of cyber terrorism: a comparative perspective. PER: Potchefstroomse Elektroniese Regsblad, 15(2), 1–37.

Casutt G. (2016). Les femmes musulmanes dans l'ombre du jihad : une armée de roses entre soutien visible et invisible à l'utopie jihadiste dans une conception féminine du fard al ayn. Thése Paris : Ehess

Casutt G. (2016). Les femmes musulmanes dans l'ombre du jihad : une armée de roses entre soutien visible et invisible à l'utopie jihadiste dans une conception féminine du fard al ayn. Thése Paris : Ehess

Cavin, Susan. (2006). Theory of War Propaganda Technology: From WWII Radio to Video War Games. Paper presented at the Society for the Study of Social Problems. http://search.proquest.com/docview/61751812?accountid=10246

Cebrian, Manuel, Torres, Manuel R., Huerta, Ramon, & Fowler, James H. (2013). Violent extremist group ecologies under stress. Scientific Reports, 3.

Celebi, Erdogan. (2010). Female Seperatism: The Role of Women in the PKK/KONGRA-GEL Terrorist Organization Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 105-112).

Chams M. (janvier 2016), « L'idéologie de l'Organisation de l'Etat » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Chao, En-Chieh. (2015). The-Truth-About-Islam.Com: Ordinary Theories of Racism and Cyber Islamophobia. Critical Sociology (Sage Publications, Ltd.), 41(1), 57-75.

Chaouche, M. (2013). Croiserie aux vents du Web. Editions Publibook.

Charfi M. (2015), La sortie de la radicalization. Non pour la perte de l'identité, Alger, Dar-al-Qasaba.

Charvat, J. P. I. A. G. (2009). Cyber Terrorism: A New Dimension in Battlespace The Virtual Battlefield: Perspectives on Cyber Warfare (Vol. 3, pp. 77-87).

Chen Jin. (2001). 网络对青少年犯罪的影响及防治对策研究. 中国人民公安大学学报(社会科学版) (3), 102-105.

Chen, H. (2007). Exploring extremism and terrorism on the web: the dark web project. Pacific Asia Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (Vol.4430, pp.1-20). Springer-Verlag.

Chen, Hsinchun, Chung, Wingyan, Jialun, Q. I. N., Reid, Edna, Saqeman, Marc, & Weimann, Gabriel. (2008). Uncovering the Dark Web : A Case Study of Jihad on the Web (English). Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology (Print), 59 (8), 1347-1359.

Chen, Hsinchun, Thoms, Sven, & Fu, Tianjun. (2008). Cyber extremism in web 2.0: An exploratory study of international Jihadist groups Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 98-103).

Chen, Hsinchun. (2008). Sentiment and affect analysis of dark web forums: Measuring radicalization on the internet Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 104-109).

Chenmei Lv. (2015). 新时期印度尼西亚反恐困境和策略. 东南亚纵横 (6), 37-41.

Chi Zhang. (2013). 新疆极端势力内控报告：近年数次恐袭无当地民众参与。凤凰周刊 2014年6月14。

Chiluwa, Innocent, & Ajiboye, Esther. (2014). 'We Are after Ideals': A Critical Analysis of Ideology in the Tweets by Boko Haram. Global Media Journal: African Edition, 8(2), 318-346.

Chiluwa, Innocent. (2015). Radicalist discourse: a study of the stances of Nigeria's Boko Haram and Somalia's Al Shabaab on Twitter. Journal of Multicultural Discourses, 10(2), 214-235.

Chuanmei Wang. (2013). 中国西部民族地区恐怖主义犯罪心理分析及其预防. 犯罪研究 (2), 66-71.

Cimino, M. (2014). La « fabrique de l'ennemi » en système totalitaire. Le cas syrien (1946-2014). Relations internationales, 158(3), 117. Https://doi.org/10.3917/ri.158.0117

Clark, Lynn Schofield (2013) 'Cultivating the media activist: How critical media literacy and critical service learning can reform journalism education'. Journalism 14(7): 885–903.

Clément, P.-A. (2010). G.I. contre jihad. Les Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Cohen J. 2015 « Digital Counterinsurgency: How to Marginalize the Islamic State Online » Foreing affairs https://www.foreignaffairs.com/articles/middle-east/digital-counterinsurgency

Cohen, Jared. (2015). Digital Counterinsurgency. Foreign Affairs, 94(6), 52-58.

Cole, J. (2012). Radicalization in virtual worlds: Second life through the eyes of an avatar. Journal of Policing, Intelligence and Counter Terrorism, 7(1), 66-79.

Collectif, & Truong, N. (2016). Résister à la terreur. Aube (De l').

Collectif. (2015). Le monde en 2030 vu par la CIA. DES EQUATEURS.

Conesa, P. (2016). Dr. Saoud et Mr. Djihad : La diplomatie religieuse de l'Arabie saoudite. Robert Laffont/bouquins/segher.

Conesa, P. (2016). Guide du petit djihadiste. Fayard.

Conti, B. (2011). Les musulmans en Italie entre crise identitaire et réponses islamistes. Revue européenne des migrations internationales, 27(2), 183–201. Https://doi.org/10.4000/remi.5501

Conversi, Daniele. (2012). Irresponsible Radicalization: Diasporas, Globalisation and Long-Distance Nationalism in the Digital Age. Journal of Ethnic & Migration Studies, 38(9), 1357-1379.

Conway, M. (2006). Reality bytes: cyber-terrorism and terrorist use of the Internet. (U221922 Ph.D.), Trinity College Dublin (University of Dublin) (Ireland), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301660701?accountid=10246

Conway, M. (2009). Le cyber-terrorisme. : Le discours des médias américains et ses impacts. Cités, 39(3), 81. Https://doi.org/10.3917/cite.039.0081

Conway, Maura, & McInerney, Lisa. (2008). Jihadi Video and Auto-radicalization: Evidence from an Exploratory YouTube Study Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 5376, pp. 108-118).

Conway, Maura. Terrorism and the Internet: New Media,ÄîNew Threat? Parliamentary Affairs, 59(2), 283-298.

Coolsaet, R. (Ed.) (2011). Jihadi Terrorism and the Radicalization Challenge in Europe. Aldershot, England; Burlington, VT: Ashgate.

Corb, Abbee. (2015). Online hate and cyber-bigotry: A glance at our radicalized online world. In N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi, J. G. D. Grieve, N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi & J. G. D. Grieve (Eds.), The Routledge international handbook on hate crime. (pp. 306-317). New York, NY, US : Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Council of Europe, Internet: the case law of the European Court of Human Rights, 2015. Conseil de l'Europe/Cour européenne des Droits de l'Homme, 2011, mise à jour Juin 2015.

Crabill, Scott L. (2008). Hate on the Internet%1. Florida Communication Journal, 36(2), 1-15.

Crettiez, X. (2011). « High risk activism » : essai sur le processus de radicalization violente (première partie). Pôle Sud, (34), 45–60.

Crettiez, X. (2011). « High risk activism » : essai sur le processus de radicalisation violente. Revue Pôle SUD

Crettiez, X. (2012). « High Risk Activism » : Essai sur le processus de radicalization violente. Pôle Sud, (35), 97–112.

Crilley, Kathy. (2001). Information warfare: new battlefields terrorists, propaganda and the Internet (English). Aslib proceedings : New information perspectives, 53(7), 250-264.

D. Frau-Meigs and L. Hibbard, Education 3.0 and Internet Governance: A new global alliance for children and young people's sustainable digital development Global Commission on Internet Governance Series, London, Chatham House, 2016,

Dagnes, Alison D. (2003). White noise: The political uses of Internet technology by right -wing extremist groups. (3110477 Ph.D.), University of Massachusetts Amherst, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305321662?accountid=10246

Dallemagne, G., Matz, V., & Martens, Q. (2016). La Belgique face au radicalisme : Comprendre et agir. Presses universitaires de Louvain.

Damon, J. (2010). Contre Le Terrorisme, L'arme Économique. Enjeux, les Echos, 85.

Daniel, H. (1992). Réseaux internationaux de violence, ventes d'armes et terrorisme. Centre d'étude des conflits.

Daniels, Jessie. (2009). Cloaked websites: Propaganda, cyber-racism and epistemology in the digital era. New Media & Society, 11(5), 659-683.

Danthe, M. (2015). Manuel Valls choisit Facebook. Le Temps.

Daoud H. (hiver 2016), « Les tribus irakiens en terre de djihad » (article), Omran, (15).

Dar-al-iftâ'a. (2014). L'esclavage des femmes par Daesh, rapport en arabe de l'Observatoire des fatwas takfiriste et de pensée extrémiste, Dar al-iftâ'a, Le Caire, décembre 2014.

Dartnell, M. (2005). Communicative practice and transgressive global politics: The d'ua of Sheikh Muhammed Al Mohaisany. First Monday, 10(7), 1-1.

Dassetto, F. (2005). Les dimensions complexes d'une rencontre : Europe et islam. Revue théologique de Louvain, 36(2), 201–220.

Davies, Lynn. (2014). Interrupting Extremism by Creating Educative Turbulence. Curriculum Inquiry, 44(4), 450-468. doi: 10.1111/curi.12061

Davis, Diane. (2013). 2013: Questioning Digital Activism. Currents in Electronic Literacy, 1-1.

Debord, T., Binder, P., Salomon, J., & Roué, R. (2002). Les armes biologiques. Topique, 81(4), 93. Https://doi.org/10.3917/top.081.0093

Deffarges, T. (2003). Sur la nature et les causes du terrorisme. Une revue de la littérature économique. Tiers-Monde, 44(174), 369–392. Https://doi.org/10.3406/tiers.2003.5390

Demchak, Chris. (2006). Security Dilemmas and the Public Face of Covert Organizations: Tracking Terrorists in the Internet. Conference Papers – International Studies Association, 1.

Denning, Dorothy E. (2010). Terror's web: How the Internet is transforming terrorism. In Y. Jewkes, M. Yar, Y. Jewkes & M. Yar (Eds.), Handbook of Internet crime. (pp. 194-213). Devon, United Kingdom: Willan Publishing.

Der Derian, J. (2005). Imaging terror: logos, pathos and ethos. Third World Quarterly, 26(1), 23-37.

Developing Effective Counter-Narrative; Frameworks for Countering Violent Extremism Meeting Note, September 2014, Hedayah and The International Centre for Counter Terrorism (The Hague)

Dianne, C., & Louis, B. (2003). Comprendre l'acte terroriste. Les Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Dickson, L.W. Lone. (2015). Wolf Terrorism. A Case Study: The Radicalization Process of a Continually Investigated & Islamic State Inspired Lone Wolf Terrorist. Degree project in Criminology 15 Credits. Malmö University: Faculty of Health and Society, Department of Criminology, 2015.Dunleavy, P. T. (2011). The fertile soil of jihad: Terrorism's prison connection. Washington, DC: Potomac Books.

Dienel, H. (2010). Terrorism and the Internet: threats- target groups – deradicalization strategies. Amsterdam : IOS Press.

Difraoui, A. E., & Uhlmann, M. (2015). Prévention de la radicalization et déradicalization : les modèles allemand, britannique et danois. Politique étrangère, Hiver (4), 171–182.

Dirèche K. (2012). « Les Murchidât au Maroc. Entre islam d'État et islam au féminin », Revue des mondes musulmans et de la Méditerranée, n° 128, décembre 2010, mis en ligne le 05 janvier 2012, consulté le 23 août 2016. URL : http://remmm.revues.org/6857.

Ditchburn, J. (2015). Les pages Facebook des politiciens prises d'assaut par des antimusulmans. La Presse Canadienne.

Douzet, F. (2016). Le cyberespace, troisième front de la lutte contre Daech. Hérodote, 160-161(1), 223. Https://doi.org/10.3917/her.160.0223

du Preez, Madely. (2009). Hypermedia Seduction for Terrorist Recruiting. Online Information Review, 33(1), 208-209.

Ducol, B. (2015). Comment le jihadisme est-il devenu numérique ? Sécurité et stratégie, 20(1), 34-43.

Ducol, B. (2015). Devenir jihadiste à l'ère numérique Une approche processuelle et situationnelle de l'engagement jihadiste au regard du Web (Doctorat en science politique). Université Laval, Québec.

Ducol, B. (2015). Farhad Khosrokhavar, Radicalization. Lectures. Consulté à l'adresse https://lectures.revues.org/17541

Ducol, B. (2015). Martyrologie 2.0 ou la genèse d'une fabrique numérique des martyrs jihadistes. Http://www.revue-signes.info, (15). Consulté à l'adresse http://www.revue-signes.info/document.php?Id=4502

Earnhardt, R. (2014). Al-Qaeda's Media Strategy: Internet self- radicalization and counter-radicalization policies 2014 Public Affairs

Eid Badri Mohamed (juillet 2015), « 'Daesh' et la sécurité du Golfe : d'une menace probable au danger réel », Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Eiffler, Sven. (2010). Jihadist Propaganda on the Internet: Impact and Challenges for the Security Community Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 71-79).

Ekman, Mattias. (2015). Online Islamophobia and the politics of fear: Manufacturing the green scare. Ethnic and Racial Studies, 38(11), 1986-2002.

El-Badawy, Emman, Milo Comerford and Peter Welby, Inside the Jihadi Mind, Centre on Religion and Geopolitics, Tony Blair Faith Foundation, 6 Oct 2015

Ely Karmon. (2009). Pakistan, the Radicalization of the Jihadist movement and the challenge to China. Journal of Middle Eastern and Islamic Studies (in Asia).

Erelle, A. (2015). Dans la peau d'une djihadiste : enquête au coeur des filières de recrutement de l'État islamique. Paris, France : j'ai lu, DL 2015.

Ernst-Vintila, A. (in preparation, 2017). How effective are ISIS' religion-inspired nasheeds in online propaganda directed towards young French?

Ernst-Vintila, A., & Macovei, I. (2016). «Je suis Charlie», la liberté au-delà de l'égalité et la fraternité? Interprétation collective des attaques terroristes de janvier 2015 en France et expression online d'un nexus. Psihologia Sociala, (38), 111-123.

Espeseth, Craig, Gibson, Jessica, Jones, Andy, & Goodman, Seymour. (2013). Terrorist Use of Communication Technology and Social Networks Technological Dimensions of Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 115, pp. 91-105).

European Commission's Expert Group. (2011). Radicalization processes leading to acts of terrorism. In: R. Coolsaet (Ed.), Jihadi terrorism and the radicalization challenge: European and American Experiences. Burlington, VT: Ashgate, 269-288.

Faris, D. M. (2012). La révolte en réseau : le « printemps arabe » et les médias sociaux. Politique étrangère, Printemps (1), 99-109.

Fei Wang. (2015). 伊斯兰教宗教极端思想新媒体传播的特点. 青年记者 (36), 88-89.

Feldman, Matthew. (2013). Comparative Lone Wolf Terrorism: Toward a Heuristic Definition. Democracy & Security, 9(3), 270-286

Féo, A. D. (2009). Les musulmans de Châu Đốc (Vietnam) à l'épreuve du salafisme Châu Đốc Muslims (Vietnam) faced with Salafism. Moussons : Recherche en Sciences Humaines sur l'Asie du Sud-Est, (13), 359–372.

Ferguson, Kate, Countering violent extremism through media and communication strategies : a review of the evidence, Partnership for Conflict, Crime and Security Research University of East Anglia, March 2016.

Fernandez, Alberto. (2015). "Contesting the Space" Adversarial Online Engagement as a Tool for Combating Violent Extremism. Soundings, 98(4), 488-500.

Fiddner, Mac. (2008). Medieval Ideology and 21st Century Technology: Al Qaeda, Terrorism and the Internet. Conference Papers -- International Studies Association, 1-12.

Filiu, J.-P. (2015). Définir Al-Qaida, (no 47). Consulté à l'adresse http://spire.sciencespo.fr/hdl:/2441/eu4vqp9ompqllr09i62100681/resources/crii-047-0111.pdf

Folon, J. (2015). Le printemps numérique : Comment la révolution digitale a modifié la société, l'enseignement et les entreprises. Corporate Copyright.

Forest, James J. F. (2009). Influence Warfare and Modern Terrorism. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 10(1), 81-89.

Francey, O. (2015). Le djihad au coeur de la mosquée de Genève. Le Temps.

Frau-Meigs, 2016 "Media and Information Literacy (MIL):Taking the digital social turn for online freedoms and education 3.0" in H. Tumber and S. Waisbord (eds), The Routledge Companion to Media and Human Rights, London, Routledge, 2016

Frau-Meigs, D. (2005). Qui a détourné le 11 septembre ? (1réd.). De Boeck Supérieur. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.cairn.info/qui-a-detourne-le-11-septembre--9782804149994.htm

Frau-Meigs, D. (2017).MIL : Taking the digital social turn for online freedoms and education 3.0 in Waisbord and Turner 2017

Frau-Meigs, D., & Torrent, J. (eds.) 2009, Mapping media education policies in the world: visions, programmes and challenges, UN-Alliance of Civilizations-UNESCO, New York.

Freedman, J. L., & Fraser, S. C. (1966). Compliance without pressure: the foot-in-the-door technique. Journal of personality and social psychology, 4(2), 195.

Frenett, Ross and Moli Dow, One to One Online Interventions: A Pilot CVE Methodology, Institute for Strategic Dialogue, September 2015

Fuchs, A., Ministère délégué à l'enseignement supérieur et à la recherche, & Alliance Athena. (2016). Recherches sur les radicalizations, les formes de violence qui en résultent et la manière dont les sociétés les préviennent et s'en protègent : État des lieux, propositions, actions. Paris, France: Alliance Athena.

Fuentes, Kendra M. (2016). Cyberterrorism: The use of social networking to recruit Westerners an informational guide for law enforcement agencies. (10107081 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791468583?accountid=10246

G, V. De. (2014). Ils utilisent des hashtags spéciaux. Le Temps.

Ganor, B. (Ed.). (2007). Hypermedia seduction for terrorist recruiting. Amsterdam, Holland: IOS Press.

García, M. G. (2016). Resonancias del zapatismo mexicano y la resistencia palestina : dos ejemplos de autonomía en el Sur Global. Espiral. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?Id=13842934004

Gaulmyn, R. Par I. De. (2016). Quelle responsabilité de l'islam dans la radicalization ? La Croix. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.la-croix.com/France/Securite/Quelle-responsabilite-islam-dans-radicalization-2016-04-03-1200750863

Gaulmyn, R. Par I. De. (2016b). Quelle responsabilité de l'islam dans la radicalization ? La Croix. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.la-croix.com/France/Securite/Quelle-responsabilite-islam-dans-radicalization-2016-04-03-1200750863

Geng, L., Ming-Li, L. I., & University, X. (2016). Beneficial enlightenment of governance religious extremism in Uzbekistanon combat extramalization in China. Journal of Hebei United University.

Gerbner, G. (1988) "Violence and Terror in the Mass Media." Reports and Papers in Mrus Communication, No. 102. Paris: Unesco, March 1988.

Gercke, Marco. (2012). Legal Responses to Terrorist Use of the Internet Enhancing Cooperation in Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 99, pp. 19-34).

Gercke, Marco. (2012). Strategy, Policy, Legislation, Prevention and Enforcement: Components of a Comprehensive Approach in the Fight against Cybercrime and Terrorist Use of the Internet Analyzing Different Dimensions and New Threats in Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 104, pp. 11-21).

Gerstenfeld, Phyllis B., Grant, Diana R., & Chau-Pu, Chiang. (2003). Hate Online: A Content Analysis of Extremist Internet Sites. Analyses of Social Issues & Public Policy, 3(1), 29-44.

Gervereau, L. (2015). La guerre n'est pas faite pour les images. Vingtième Siècle. Revue d'histoire, no 80(4), 83-88.

Ghanem-Yazbeck. (2014). Du djihadisme et des femmes. Huffington Post, 16/09/2014. http://www.huffpostmaghreb.com/dalia-ghanemyazbeck/du-djihadisme-et-des-femm_b_5829928.html

Giacomello, Giampiero. (2004). Bangs for the Buck: A Cost-Benefit Analysis of Cyberterrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 27(5), 387-408.

Gill, P., Horgan, J., and Deckert, P. (2014). 'Bombing Alone: Tracing the Motivations and Antecedent Behaviors of Lone-Actor Terrorists'. Journal of Forensic Sciences 59(2): 425-435.

Global Counterterrorism Forum. *The Role of Families in Preventing and Countering Violent Extremism: Strategic Recommendations and Programming Options.* https://www.thegctf.org/Portals/1/Documents/Toolkit-documents/English-The-Role-of-Familes-in-PCVE.pdf

Goetgheluck, D., & Conrath, P. (2011). Internet est-il dangereux ? Le Journal des psychologues, 290(7), 3. Https://doi.org/10.3917/jdp.290.0003

Goolsby, Rebecca. (2008). The DoD encounters the blogosphere Social Computing, Behavioral Modeling and Prediction (pp. 25-25).

Graham, Roderick. (2016). Inter-ideological mingling: White extremist ideology entering the mainstream on Twitter. Sociological Spectrum, 36(1), 24-36.

Grausam, Robert. (2005). The language of Islamic fundamentalism (English). AAA. Arbeiten aus Anglistik und Amerikanistik, 30(1-2), 227-241.

Gremaud, R. (2015). Comment « déradicaliser»? *Le Temps.*

Grieve, L. B. (2006). Terrorist supporters and the internet: an exploration of online 'virtual' communities. (U233172 Ph.D.), University College Cork (Ireland), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301640885?accountid=10246

Gruenewald, Jeff, Chermak, Steven, & Freilich, Joshua D. (2013). Distinguishing 'Loner' Attacks from Other Domestic Extremist Violence. Criminology & Public Policy, 12(1), 65-91.

Guadagno, R. E., Lankford, A., Muscanell, N. L., Okdie, B. M., & mccallum, D. M. (2011). Social Influence in the online Recruitment of terrorists and terrorist Sympathizers: Implications for Social Psychology Research. Revue Internationale de Psychologie Sociale, Tome 23(1), 25-56.

Guadagno, Rosanna E., Lankford, Adam, Muscanell, Nicole L., Okdie, Bradley M., & McCallum, Debra M. (2010). Social influence in the online recruitment of terrorists and terrorist sympathizers: Implications for social psychology research. Revue Internationale de Psychologie Sociale, 23(1), 25-56.

Guanfeng Bai. (2015). 宗教极端思想向妇女和青少年渗透问题研究——以兵团第三师四十四团十八连为例. 兵团党校学报 (1), 40-43.

Gücük, M. T., & Menu, D. (2016). Vous Et Nous ; La Turquie attaquée ; Nos prisons débordent; NOUS RECTIFIONS. Le Temps.

Guibet Lafaye, C. (2016). Approche critique des sociologies de la radicalisation. Forum de la DAP « Radicalisation violente, engagement et désengagement », Oct 2016, Paris, France. <hal-01381974>

Guidère, M. (2015). Terreur : la nouvelle ère. Paris : Editions Autrement.

Guidère, M. (2016). Internet, haut lieu de la radicalization. Pouvoirs, (158), 115-123.

Gunaratna R., Acharya A., &Wang P. (2010). Hui Muslims: The milieu of radicalization and extremism. Palgrave Macmillan US.

Gustavson, Aleta Top, & Sherkat, Darren E. (2004/08/14/2004 Annual Meeting, San Francisco). The Ideological Structuring of White Supremacy on the Internet: Analyzing Network Size, Density, and Asymmetry.

Gut, Till. (2007). German Federal Court of Justice (Bundesgerichtshof,ÄîBGH), 3rd Criminal Senate. Journal of Criminal Law, 71(6), 491-496.

Habib K. (septembre 2014), « Le monde lutte contre la sauvagerie de Daesh » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/11205

Hachem A. (date ?), « Entre les pauvres et les musulmans : les quatre erreurs autour du terrorisme dans le monde » (dossier), Le Caire, Centre régional pour les études stratégiques. Consulté à l'adresse http://rsgleb.org/modules.php?name=News&file=article&sid=675

Hacohen, Eli. (2010). Digital Hate: Terror, Anti-Semitism and Racism on the Internet Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 3-6).

Hai, Nadia. (2012). The Rhetoric of Terrorism: A Rhetorical Analysis of "Inspire" Magazine. (MR91165 M.A.), University of Calgary (Canada), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1238289183?accountid=10246

Haimzadeh, P. (2016). Un dialogue national instrumentalisé par les Occidentaux; Vers une nouvelle intervention en Libye ? Le Monde Diplomatique.

Haiqiang Chen. (2014). 社交网络与恐怖主义. 中国信息安全 (7), 77-78.

Hale, W. Chris. (2012). Extremism on the World Wide Web: A research review. Criminal Justice Studies: A Critical Journal of Crime, Law & Society, 25(4), 343-356.

Hao Wu. (2015). 恐怖主义幽灵袭扰下的欧盟国家反恐政策——以青年群体为视角. 中国青年研究 (8), 111-116.

Haras R. & Nikita M. (2015). Caliphettes: Women and the Appeal of Islamic State ». Quilliam Foundation. https://www.quilliamfoundation.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/publications/free/caliphettes-women-and-the-appeal-of-is.pdf

Harris, Candida, Rowbotham, Judith, & Stevenson, Kim. (2009). Truth, law and hate in the virtual marketplace of ideas: perspectives on the regulation of Internet content. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 155-184.

Harris, Candida, Rowbotham, Judith, & Stevenson, Kim. (2009). Truth, law and hate in the virtual marketplace of ideas: perspectives on the regulation of Internet content. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 155-184.

Hasan, Y., Bègue, L., Scharkow, M., & Bushman, B. J. (2013). The more you play, the more aggressive you become: A long-term experimental study of cumulative violent video game effects on hostile expectations and aggressive behavior. Journal of Experimental Social Psychology, 49(2), 224-227.

Hassan Harith (juin 2015), « L'organisation de l'Etat en Iraq. Au cœur des failles du système politique » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Hassan Hassan (juin 2015), « L'Organisation de l'Etat islamique : les origines idéologiques et le contexte politique » (étude), Carnegie Middle East Center, Beyrouth.

Hastings, Megan, & Rogerson, Kenneth. (2016). Battle of Narratives: Contesting ISIL's Propaganda with Social Media. Conference Papers -- Southern Political Science Association, 1-34.

Hayne, Spencer O. (2010). Borderless world, boundless threat: Online Jihadists and modern terrorism. (1483143 M.A.), Georgetown University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/818725727?accountid=10246

Heathershaw, J., & Montgomery, D. W. (2014). The myth of post-Soviet Muslim radicalization in the Central Asian republics. Chatham House, 11.

Hecker, M. (2007). Al Qaïda. *Études*, Tome 407(11), 440-450.

Hecker, M. (2015). Web social et djihadisme : Du diagnostic aux remèdes. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.ifri.org/sites/default/files/atoms/files/fs57hecker.pdf

Hegghammer, T. (2006). Combattants saoudiens en Irak : modes de radicalization et de recrutement. Cultures & conflits, (64), 111-126. Https://doi.org/10.4000/conflits.2128

Heisbourg, F. (2016). Comment perdre la guerre contre le terrorisme. Stock.

Heitmeyer, W. (2002). Gruppenbezogene Menschenfeindlichkeit. Die theoretische Konzeption und erste empirische Ergebnisse (Group-focused Enmity. Theoretical conception and first empirical results). In W. Heitmeyer (Ed.), Deutsche Zustände, Folge 1 (German states, Vol. 1) (pp. 15-36). Frankfurt a.M.: Suhrkamp.

Helly, D., & Nadeau, F. (2015). Radicalization : ce qu'on refuse de voir. Relations (00343781), (781), 23–25.

Hénin, N. (2015). Jihad Academy. Fayard.

Henry, J.-R., Groc, G., & Institut de recherches et d'études sur le monde arabe et musulman (Éd.). (2000). Politiques méditerranéennes : entre logiques étatiques et espace civil: une réflexion franco-allemande. Paris : Aix-en-Provence : Karthala ; IREMAM.

Hervouet, G., & Campana, A. (Éd.). (2013). Terrorisme et insurrection : évolution des dynamiques conflictuelles et réponses des États. Québec (Québec) : Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Hmed, C. (2012). Réseaux dormants, contingence et structures : Genèses de la révolution tunisienne. Revue française de science politique, 62(5), 797. Https://doi.org/10.3917/rfsp.625.797

Hoffmann, N. (2002). La radicalization de l'islam : un facteur de déstabilisation en Asie du Sud-Est ?, Volume 67(1). Consulté à l'adresse http://www.persee.fr/doc/polit_0032-342x_2002_num_67_1_5161#polit_0032-342X_2002_num_67_1_T1_0124_0000

Holbrook, Donald. (2015). A critical analysis of the role of the internet in the preparation and planning of acts of terrorism. Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict, 8(2), 121-133.

Holtz, Peter, Kronberger, Nicole, & Wagner, Wolfgang. (2012). Analyzing internet forums: A practical guide. Journal of Media Psychology: Theories, Methods, and Applications, 24(2), 55-66.

Homeland Security Institute. (2009). The internet as a terrorist tool for recruitment & radicalization of youth. U.S. Department of Homeland Security, Science and Technology Directorate

Hongshui Shu, Gang WANG. (2016). 对我国网络恐怖主义犯罪的探讨. Journal of Shandong Police College.

Horgan, J., & Braddock, K. (2011). Evaluating the effectiveness of de-radicalization programs: Towards a scientific approach to terrorism risk reduction. In: S. Canna (Ed.), Countering violent extremism: Scientific methods & strategies. Washington, DC: NSI.

Houdaifa Hicham. (2017). Extremisme religieux. Plongée dans les milieux radicaux au Maroc, Casablanca, En toutes lettres.

Hoyle, Carolyn, Alexandra Bradford and Ross Frenett, Becoming Mulan? Female Western Migrants to DAESH, Institute for Strategic Dialogue, January 2015

Hua Feng. (2009). 近年新疆周边伊斯兰极端主义与新疆稳定问题研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 新疆师范大学).

Hussain, Ghaffar, and Dr. Erin Marie Saltman, 'Jihad Trending: A Comprehensive Analysis of Online Extremism and How to Counter it,' Quilliam Foundation, 2014

Hussein H. & Moreno Al-Ajamî C. (2016). Le djihad fantasmé de Daesh. cdradical.hypotheses.org, 24 février 2016, https://cdradical.hypotheses.org/15

Hussein, H. (2015). La télévision et la transformation de l'éthique islamiste : les présentatrices niqabées sur les chaînes salafistes satellitaires arabes. Recherches Feministes, 28(2), 223.

Hussein, Hasna (2016). « Discours, place et rôles des femmes muhâjirât de Daesh »,

Ibrahim M., Assila S. & Aliba A. (janvier 2015), « Sinaï et le terrorisme : entre les priorités de la sécurité nationale et les nécessités de la sécurité régionale », Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/36595

Imad A. (2016). Le salafisme et les salafistes. L'identité et la distinction. Une lecture de l'expérience libanaise, Beyrouth, Centre de la civilisation pour le développement de la pensée islamique.

Institut national des hautes études de la sécurité et de la justice (INHESJ). (2015). La radicalization violente. La documentation française. Consulté à l'adresse http://livre.fnac.com/a7933506/Collectif-La-radicalization-violente

International Centre for Counter-Terrorism. (2012). *Engaging Civil Society in Countering Violent Extremism. Experiences with the UN Global Counter-Terrorism Strategy.* https://www.icct.nl/download/file/ICCT-Van-Ginkel-Civil-Society-in-CVE-August-2012.pdf

IPAC. (2015). Online activism and social media usage among indonesian extremists : Report No.24. Institut for policy analysis of conflict

Ismail J. (décembre 2015), « Les nouvelles provinces : 'Daesh' en Asie centrale » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Ito Mizuko et al 2009 Living and Learning with New Media: Summary of Findings from the Digital Youth Project. Mac Arthur Foundation

ÏùÑÏú†ÏÑù. (2012). A Study on the Radicalization of Homegrown Terrorism and Trend Analysis. Korean terrorism studies Review, 5(3), 157-174.

Jaitner, Margarita, & Kantola, Harry. (2014). Countering Threats – a Comprehensive Model for Utilization of Social Media for Security and law Enforcement Authorities. Proceedings of the 13th European Conference on Cyber Warfare and Security (Eccws-2014), 102-109.

Janbek, Dana M. (2010). The use of the Internet as a communication medium by extremist Muslim groups: A content analysis of web sites. (70), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2010-99031-321&site=ehost-live&scope=site Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Jassim S. (avril 2015), « Les djihadistes d'Indonésie : du mouvement de Dar-al islam à l'organisation de l'Etat » (dossier), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies, Doha. Consulté à l'adresse http://studies.aljazeera.net/ar/reports/2016/04/160404071800641.html

Jenkins, Brian Michael, 'Would-Be Warriors: Incidents of Jihadist Terrorist Radicalization in the United States Since September 11,' RAND, 2001

Jerard, Jolene. (2011). Facing the Challenge of the Evolving Terrorist Threat Analysis and Strategies to Counter the Terrorism Threat (Vol. 89, pp. 63-77).

Jin Y. J. (2014). 宗教极端主义的产生和特点. 中国宗教 (6), 20-23.

Johansson, Fredrik, Kaati, Lisa, & Shrestha, Amendra. (2013). Detecting Multiple Aliases in Social Media. 2013 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 1004-1011.

Johnson, Jennifer L. (2011). Mobilizing Minutewomen: Gender, Cyberpower, and the New Nativist Movement. Research in Social Movements, Conflicts and Change (32), 137-161.

Jones, D. (2012). On a tous à y gagner : La révolution des médias sociaux, bien faire et faire le bien. Pearson.

Jordi, T. G. (2009). Syria's Kurds. Routledge.

Jossin, A. (2016). Juger d'anciens Djihadistes. La vie des idées.fr, mis en ligne 18 juillet 2016

Jouanneau, S. (2016). Qui sont les hommes qui guident le culte musulman ? ; Une affaire d'Etat ? Le Monde Diplomatique.

Juan Du. (2016). 当前我国网络恐怖主义的特点，原因及对策——以恐怖活动新变化为切入点. Journal of Yunnan Police College.

Juanjuan Wang, Wenwu Yang. (2014). 马尔代夫恐怖活动的特点、原因与马政府的应对. 现代国际关系 (8)

Kai Chen. (2010). "愤青"与恐怖主义——试析青年参与恐怖活动的意识形态因素. 当代青年研究 (7), 18-25.

Kamel M. (octobre 2015), « Daesh en Arabie saoudite » (étude), Bagdad, Al- Nahrain Center for Strategic Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alnahrain.iq/?p=2660

Kaplan, Jeffrey, Weinberg, Leonard, & Oleson, Ted. (2003). Dreams and realities in cyberspace: White Aryan Resistance and the World Church of the Creator. Patterns of Prejudice, 37(2), 139-155.

Kasiki S. (2016). Dans la nuit de Daesh, confessions d'une repentie. Paris : Editions Robert Laffont.

Kebbell, Mark R., & Porter, Louise. (2012). An intelligence assessment framework for identifying individuals at risk of committing acts of violent extremism against the West. Security Journal, 25(3), 212-228.

Kedma, Gabi, Guri, Mordehai, Sela, Tom, & Elovici, Yuval. (2013). Analyzing Users' Web Surfing Patterns to Trace Terrorists and Criminals 2013 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics: Big Data, Emergent Threats, and Decision-Making in Security Informatics (pp. 143-145).

Keenan, Catlyn Kenna. Behind the Doors of White Supremacy. (AAI3641997). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1718065829?accountid=10246

Kéita, S. (2008). Isabelle Garcin-Marrou, Des violences et des médias. Paris, Éd. L'Harmattan, coll. Questions contemporaines, 2007, 285 p. Questions de communication, (14), 349-352.

Kepel, G. (2013). Merah-Tsarnaev, même combat, même impact. Le Temps.

Khachana R. (septembre 2015), « L'extension de Daesh en Afrique du Nord » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Khajiqchi J. (mars 2016), « L'armée des djihadistes qui combattent Daesh » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Khalid G. (2015), Daesh. Du califat de l'Etat à l'Etat du califat, Beyrouth, Al-Forat (dist.).

Khalid, I., & Leghari, M. E. (2014). Radicalization of youth in Southern Punjab. South Asian Studies. 2014, 29

Kharbouch M. S. (juin 2016), « De la légitimité révolutionnaire à Daesh : Les politiques des révolutionnaires arabes et l'émergence des Daeshiens » (rapport), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/40272

Khatib, Lina. (2003). Communicating Islamic Fundamentalism as Global Citizenship. Journal of Communication Inquiry, 27(4), 389.

Khosrokhavar, F. (2003). Islam et nouvelles formes de racisme. Agora débats/jeunesses, 32(1), 54–63. Https://doi.org/10.3406/agora.2003.2094

Khosrokhavar, F. (2014). Radicalization. Paris, Éditions de la Maison des Sciences de l'Homme.

Khosrokhavar, F. (2015). Radicalization. Les Editions de la MSH.

Kiesler, C. A. (1971). The psychology of commitment: Experiments linking behavior to belief. Academic Press.

Kirby, Aidan. (2007). The London bombers as "self-starters": A case study in indigenous radicalization and the emergence of autonomous cliques. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 30(5), 415-428.

Kirke, Xander. (2015). Violence and Political Myth: Radicalizing Believers in the Pages of Inspire Magazine. International Political Sociology, 9(4), 283-298.

Knox, Emily Goldberg. (2014). The Slippery Slope of Material Support Prosecutions: Social Media Support to Terrorists. Hastings Law Journal, 66(1), 295-329.

Kodmani, H. (2014). Le « djihadistan », un système totalitaire loin d'être improvisé. Le Temps.

Koehler, D. (2015). Right-Wing Extremism and Terrorism in Europe Current Developments and Issues for the Future. PRISM Volume 6, Number 2, July 18, 2016

Kohlmann, Evan F. (2008). 'Homegrown' terrorists: Theory and cases in the war on terror's newest front. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 618(1), 95-109.

Kohlmann, Evan F. The Real Online Terrorist Threat. Foreign Affairs, 85(5), 115-124.

Koltuksuz, Ahmet. (2013). Use of Cyberspace and Technology by Terrorists Technological Dimensions of Defence against Terrorism (Vol. 115, pp. 106-109).

Kovacich, Gerald L., & Jones, Andy. (2002). What InfoSec Professionals Should Know About Information Warfare Tactics by Terrorists. Computers & Security, 21(2), 113.

Kraidy, M. M. (2012). Les médias en Arabie saoudite. Anthropologie et Sociétés, 36(1-2), 181-200. Https://doi.org/10.7202/1011723ar

Kramer, Rachel. (2003). Internet use by terrorists and content analysis of terrorist websites. (1421948 M.A.), University of London (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/305248914?accountid=10246

Kumar, Sharath A., & Singh, Sanjay. (2013). Detection of User Cluster with Suspicious Activity in Online Social Networking Sites. 2013 Second International Conference on Advanced Computing, Networking and Security (Adcons 2013), 220-225.

L'Heuillet, H. (2016). Radicalization et terrorisme. Cités, (66), 123-136.

Laffont. (2015). Création d'un Observatoire sur la radicalization et l'extrémisme violent. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.45enord.ca/2015/02/creation-dun-observatoire-sur-la-radicalization-et-lextremisme-violent/

Lamb, Kevin. (2015). Days of Rage: America's Radical Underground, the FBI, and the Forgotten Age of Revolutionary Violence. The Journal of Social, Political, and Economic Studies, 40(4), 468-472.

Landau, P. (2008). Pour Allah jusqu'à la mort: enquête sur les convertis à l'islam radical : document. Rocher.

Lappin, Y. (2011). Virtual caliphate: Exposing the Islamist state on the Internet. Washington, DC: Potomac Books.

Larouche, J.-M. (2003). Reconnaissance et citoyenneté : Au carrefour de l'éthique et du politique. Presses de l''niversite du Quebec.

Lasseur, M. (2006). Cameroun : Afrique contemporaine, (215), 93–116.

Laura Aralbayeva (Li Zhang). (2011). 宗教与政治极端主义及其在中亚的扩散. (Doctoral dissertation, 浙江大学).

Lauterbach, Marc. (2009). Hate online: Exploring the world of extremist internet culture. (1463919 M.A.), The George Washington University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/304880356?accountid=10246

Lavorel, S. (2005). Les constitutions arabes et l'Islam : Les enjeux du pluralisme juridique. Presses de l''niversite du Quebec.

Leblanc, M. N., Fortin, S., & Le Gall, J. (2008). Être musulman en Occident après le 11 septembre : présentation. Diversité urbaine, 8(2), 5–11. Https://doi.org/10.7202/000307ar

Leclercq, C., Lamghari, Y., Coolsaet, R., Torrekens, C., & Et al. (2016). Revue l'observatoire, 86. Radicalisme violent, comprendre, prévenir... Liège: ASBL L'Observatoire.

Lee, Elissa, & Leets, Laura. (2002). Persuasive storytelling by hate groups online: Examining its effects on adolescents. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(6), 927-957.

Lefebvre, T. (2004). Stopub : analyse provisoire d'un rhizome activiste. Multitudes, no 16(2), 85-97.

Lefevre, C. (2014). Extremist social media use in Indonesia (research analysis). https://globalpublicpolicywatch.org/category/analysis/

Legrain, T. (2016). L'utilisation des réseaux sociaux par les bandes criminelles. Sécurité globale, (1), 97-111.

Legrand Philex (juillet 2014), « La stratégie colonisatrice de Daesh en Syrie », Paris, Arab Reform Initiative.

Leiken, R. S. (2012). Europe's angry Muslims: The revolt of the second generation. New York: Oxford University Press.

Lema, L. (2016). Lutte contre la radicalization : place à l'hyperlocal. Le Temps.

Lennings, Christopher J., Amon, Krestina L., Brummert, Heidi, & Lennings, Nicholas J. (2010). Grooming for terror: The internet and young people. Psychiatry, Psychology and Law, 17(3), 424-437. doi: 10.1080/13218710903566979

Leone, Massimo. (2015). Propaganda mala fide : Towards a comparative semiotics of violent religious persuasion. Semiotica, 2015(207), 631-655.

Leveau, R., Mohsen-Finan, K., & Institut français des relations internationales (Éd.). (2005). Musulmans de France et d'Europe. Paris: CNRS Editions.

Levin, Brian. (2002). Cyberhate: A legal and historical analysis of extremists' use of computer networks in America. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(6), 958-988.

Levin, Brian. (2015). The Original Web of Hate. American Behavioral Scientist, 59(12), 1609-1630. doi: 10.1177/0002764215588815

Li J., Zhao Y. (2015) 新疆地区宗教极端主义与民族分裂主义的来源与发展. Journal of People's Public Security University of China (Social Sciences Edition).

Littman, Sol. (2015). A personal reflection on good and evil on the Internet. In N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi, J. G. D. Grieve, N. Hall, A. Corb, P. Giannasi & J. G. D. Grieve (Eds.), The Routledge international handbook on hate crime. (pp. 289-292). New York, NY, US: Routledge/Taylor & Francis Group.

Liu, G. S., & Yan-Xia, L. I. (2006). Cyber terrorism and its prevention. Journal of Shandong Police College.

Livingstone, David. (2007). Taking On the Radicals. Index on Censorship, 36(4), 148-153.

Livingstone, S., Haddon, L., Görzig, A., and Ólafsson, K. (2011). Risks and safety on the Internet: The perspective of European children. Full Findings. LSE, London: EU Kids Online.

Llano, A. (2012). Dialéctica de cristianismo y secularización. Tópicos (México), (42), 125-144.

Luizard P.J. (2015). Le piège Daech. L'État islamique ou le retour de l'histoire. Paris : La Découverte.

Lunel, R. W. (2015). A Lunel, fabrique de djihadistes français. Le Temps.

Lyons, David K. (2013). Analyzing the effectiveness of Al Qaeda's online influence operations by means of propaganda theory. (1539962 M.S.), The University of Texas at El Paso, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1415436250?accountid=10246

Lyons, David K. (2013). Analyzing the effectiveness of Al Qaeda's online influence operations by means of propaganda theory. (1539962 M.S.), The University of Texas at El Paso, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1415436250?accountid=10246

M Yusuf. (2008). Prospects of youth radicalization in Pakistan: Implications for U.S. policy. Brookings Institution.

Macleod, A. (2016). La culture populaire visuelle : un espace à explorer pour les études critiques de sécurité. Cultures & Conflits, (102), 1732.

Maçonne, La. (2015). Radicalization à l'islam : un long processus. Consulté à l'adresse http://lamaconne.over-blog.com/2015/11/radicalization-a-l-islam-un-long-processus.html

Mahathir, M. (2011). La Malaisie se radicalise: danger. Le Temps.

Maher, Shiraz. (2007). Road to Jihad. Index on Censorship, 36(4), 144-147.

Mahmood, Shah. (2012). Online Social Networks: The Overt and Covert Communication Channels for Terrorists and Beyond. 2012 Ieee International Conference on Technologies for Homeland Security, 574-579.

Maillart, J.-B. (2015). L'illégitime défense de la France contre Daech en Syrie. Le Temps.

Makram R. (juillet 2015), « Les médias djihadistes : comment les organisations djihadistes investissent les nouveaux médias », Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.rcssmideast.org/Article/3605/كيف-توظف-الجماعات-الجهادية-في-مصر-وسائل-الإعلام-الحديثة#.V_UGg2W1vww

Malbrunot, G. (2015). Abu Dhabi vs. Koweït : les deux faces du Golfe. Outre-Terre, (44), 164-169.

Malthaner, S. & Lindekilde, L. (2015). Analyzing Pathways of Lone-Actor Radicalization: Relational Approach. Online http://www.orfaleacenter.ucsb.edu/sites/secure.lsit.ucsb.edu.gisp.d7_orfalea-2/files/sitefiles/other/Lindekilde_0.pdf

Mandal, Sujoyini, & Lim, Ee-Peng. (2008). Second Life: Limits of creativity or cyber threat? 2008 Ieee Conference on Technologies for Homeland Security, Vols 1 and 2 (pp. 498-503).

Mannoni, P., & Bonardi, C. (2003). Terrorisme et Mass Médias. Topique, (83), 55-72.

Marchi, R. (2011). Movimento Sociale Italiano, Alleanza Nazionale, Popolo delle Libertà: do neofascismo ao pós-fascismo em Itália. Análise Social, (201), 697-717.

Maréchal, B. (2015). Relations entre musulmans et non musulmans : les « bonnes pratiques » qui favorisent le vivre ensemble. Bruxelles : Fondation Roi Baudouuin.

Marthoz, Jean-Paul. (2017). *Terrorism and the Media: A Handbook for Journalists.* Paris: UNESCO. http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002470/247074E.pdf

Martinez, L. (2008). Structures, environnement et basculement dans le jihadisme, 133-156. Https://doi.org/10.4000/conflits.10912

Marzouki, M. (2015). Moncef Marzouki: « Ne laissons pas s'installer un discours de haine. Le Temps.

Mas'oud Belhaj A. (date ?), « Le terrorisme islamisé : la crime contre l'humanité », Londres, Center for Strategic and Diplomatic Studies.

Mastors, Elena, & Siers, Rhea. (2014). Omar al-Hammami: A case study in radicalization. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 377-388.

McCabe, Thomas R. (2016). A Strategy for the DAESH Foreign Fighter Threat. Orbis, 60(1), 140-153.

McDonald, Carina Louise. (2010). Web 2.0, Terror 2.0? Salafi-Jihadist Terrorist use of the Internet. (MR69442 M.S.S.), University of Calgary (Canada), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/847582411?accountid=10246

Mcdougall, J. (2009). Soi-même » comme un « autre ». Les histoires coloniales d'Ahmad Tawfîq al-Madanî (1899-1983). Revue des Mondes Musulmans et de la Méditerranée, (95), 95-110. Https://doi.org/10.4000/remmm.228

McGarty, C., Thomas, E. F., Lala, G., Smith, L. G., & Bliuc, A. M. (2014). New technologies, new identities, and the growth of mass opposition in the Arab Spring. Political Psychology, 35(6), 725-740.

McGilloway, Angela, Ghosh, Priyo, & Bhui, Kamaldeep. (2015). A systematic review of pathways to and processes associated with radicalization and extremism amongst Muslims in Western societies. International Review of Psychiatry, 27(1), 39-50.

McNeal, Gregory S. (2007). Cyber embargo: countering the internet jihad.

Mechachal – Online Debates and Elections in Ethiopia. Final Report: From hate speech to engagement in social media (Full Report). Consulté 2 juin 2016, à l'adresse https://www.academia.edu/25747549/Mechachal_-_Online_Debates_and_Elections_in_Ethiopia._Final_Report_From_hate_speech_to_engagement_in_social_media_Full_Report_

Meddaugh, Priscilla Marie, & Kay, Jack. (2009). Hate Speech or, "Reasonable Racism?" The Other in Stormfront. Journal of Mass Media Ethics, 24(4), 251-268.

Meloy, J. Reid, & Yakeley, Jessica. (2014). The Violent True Believer as a "Lone Wolf" – Psychoanalytic Perspectives on Terrorism. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 347-365.

Melyani, M. (2015). Printemps arabe : entre le pire des scénarios et l'aspiration à la citoyenneté. Editions L'Harmattan.

Menkhaus, K. (2014). Al-Shabaab and Social Media: A Double-Edged Sword. https://www.questia.com/library/p436518/the-brown-journal-of-world-affairs

Menkhaus, K. E. N. (2014). Al-Shabaab and Social Media: A Double-Edged Sword. Brown Journal of World Affairs, 20(2), 309-327.

Mennucci, P., & djihadistes, commission d'enquête sur la surveillance des filières et des individus. (2015). Rapport d'enquête de la commission d'enquête sur la surveillance des filières et des individus djihadistes : « Face à la menace djihadiste, la République mobilisée ». Assemblée nationale.

Mercy Corps. (2015). Youth & Consequences. Unemployment, Injustice and Violence.

Merzouk, M. (1997). Quand les jeunes redoublent de férocité : l'islamisme comme phénomène de génération / When the Young Become Violent : Islamism as a Generation Phenomenon. Archives des sciences sociales des religions, 97(1), 141–158. Https://doi.org/10.3406/assr.1997.1127

Meyran, R. (2016). Comment devient-on jihadiste ? Alternatives économiques, (353), 28-28.

Meyran, R. (2016). Qui sont les djihadistes français? Consulté à l'adresse https://generationbethune.wordpress.com/2016/01/11/qui-sont-les-djihadistes-francais/

Migaux, P. (2009). Le terrorisme au nom du Jihad. André Versaille/Renaissance du Livre.

Minei, Elizabeth, & Matusitz, Jonathan. (2011). Cyberterrorist messages and their effects on targets: A qualitative analysis. Journal of Human Behavior in the Social Environment, 21(8), 995-1019.

Mnaymneh H. (juin 2016), « Désamorcer l'héritage de l'Organisation de 'l'Etat islamique' » (article semi-académique), Washington Institute. Consulté à l'adresse http://rawabetcenter.com/archives/28455

Mohamed al-Hajj S.(dir.), Le salafisme djihadiste en Tunisie, Tunis, Tunis, Centre tunisien des études stratégiques, 2014.

Mohamed K. (novembre 2014), « Le recrutement via les réseaux sociaux. Les combattantes de Daesh » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4030338

Mohamed, Feisal G. (2007). The Globe of Villages: Digital Media and the Rise of Homegrown Terrorism. Dissent (00123846), 54(1), 61-64.

Mohammad-Arif, A. (2000). Salam America : l'islam indien en diaspora.

Mohyeddine C. (juin 2016), « La radicalité égyptienne. Les motivations des jeunes pour la violence armée », Paris, Arab Reform Initiative.

Moniquet, C. (2015). Djihad : D'Al-Qaida à l'Etat Islamique, combattre et comprendre : Document. La Boîte à Pandore.

Moretti Fernandez, Luciana. (2015). Apology for crime: situational analysis of the communication within criminal commands in Brazil. Communication & Society, 83-96.

Morrison, Steven R. (2011). Terrorism online: is speech the same as it ever was? Creighton Law Review, 44(4), 963-1002.

Moscovici, S. (1976). Social influence and social change (Vol. 10). London: Academic Press.

Mouline, N. (2015). Aux racines du djihadisme ; Surenchères traditionalistes en terre d'islam. Le Monde Diplomatique.

Mouras, T. (2015). Lone Wolves: Are They Really Alone in the Radicalization Process? Public Safety, 2015/04/02

Mueller, Jessica. (2016). Emotional Response to Terrorism and Perceived Criminal Responsibility: Does Method of Recruitment Matter. (10107584 Psy.D.), Alliant International University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791450767?accountid=10246

Muray, P. (2002). Chers djihadistes–. Mille et une nuits.

Nabhan M. (2014). Niqab et Kalachnikov : le jihad au féminin, face cachée de Daesh . Huffingtonpost, 19/10/2014. http://www.huffingtonpost.fr/myrna-nabhan/role-femmes-etat-islamique_b_5994028.html, consulté le 15 août 2016.

Nabil O. (janvier 2015), « Les atrocités de Daesh » (rapport), Observatoire d'Al-Azhar. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.azhar.eg/observer/Reports/ArtMID/2209/ArticleID/142/واد‌عش-وارتكابـلا-فلحاوش

Nacos, B. (2016). Mass-mediated Terrorism: Mainstream and Digital Media in Terrorism and Counterterrorism. Rowman & Littlefield.

Najar, S. (sous la direction. (2013). Les réseaux sociaux sur Internet à l'heure des transitions démocratiques. KARTHALA Editions.

Nakhleh, E. A., Sakurai, K., & Penn, M. (2008). Islam in Japan: A Cause for Concern? Asia policy, (5), 61-104.

Napoleoni, L. (2015). L'Etat islamique: Multinationale de la violence. Calmann-Lévy.

Navest, Aysha, de Koning, Martijn, & Moors, Annelies. (2016). CHATTING ABOUT MARRIAGE WITH FEMALE MIGRANTS TO SYRIA. Anthropology Today, 32(2), 22-25.

Nesser, Petter. (2008). How did Europe's global Jihadis obtain training for their militant causes? Terrorism and Political Violence, 20(2), 234-256.

Neumann, P. R. (2013). Options and strategies for countering online radicalization in the United States. Studies in Conflict and Terrorism, 36(6), 431-459

Neumann, Peter R. (2013). Options and strategies for countering online radicalization in the United States. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 36(6), 431-459.

Ney, J.-P. (2015). Pourquoi ils font le Djihad. Enquête sur la #générationmerah. Artège.

Nicolas, A., & Philippe, F. (2010). Le mouvement de la résistance islamique, Hamas.

Nivat, A. (2006). Islamistes : comment ils nous voient. Fayard.

O'Brien, K. J., & Deng, Y. (2015). Repression backfires: tactical radicalization and protest spectacle in rural china. Journal of Contemporary China, 24(93), 457-470.

Ogaard, Kirk. (2013). Synthesizing Social Media Date Using Information Morphing. 2013 Ase/Ieee International Conference on Social Computing (Socialcom), 944-949.

O'Hara, Kieron. (2002). THE INTERNET: A Tool for Democratic Pluralism? Science as Culture, 11(2), 287-298.

Olsson, Peter A. (2013). Homegrown Terrorists, Rebels in Search of a Cause. Middle East Quarterly, 20(3), 3-10.

Omar K. (avril 2014), « La Lybie : les entités politiques et militaires dans le conflit politique » (étude), Arab and International Relation Forum. Consulté à l'adresse http://fairforum.org/wp-content/uploads/2015/04/libya.pdf

One Nation Counter-Extremism Strategy' Risks Further Undermining Fight Against Terrorism' Muslim Council of Britain, 19 October 2015

Onowa F. (mars 2015), « Bokoharam et les 'suicidaires' de Nigéria » (rapport, Mohamed al-Mostafa, trad.), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Organisation pour la sécurité et la coopération. (2013). *SCE Online Expert Forum Series on Terrorist Use of the Internet: Threats, Responses and Potential Future Endeavours.* http://www.osce.org/secretariat/102266?download=true

Orfali, B. (2012). La banalisation de l'extrémisme à la veille de la présidentielle : Radicalization ou dé-radicalization ? Editions L'Harmattan.

Ortiz-Arroyo, D., Larsen, H. L., Zeng, D., Hicks, D. L., Wagner, G., Conway, M., & McInerney, L. (2008). Jihadi video and auto-radicalization: Evidence from an exploratory YouTube study. Berlin & Heidelberg: Springer-Verlag.

O'Shaughnessy, Nicholas J., & Baines, Paul R. (2009). Selling terror: The symbolization and positioning of Jihad. Marketing Theory, 9(2), 227-241.

Osman, M.N.M (2016). ISIS and Islamic Radicalization in Southeast Asia. Georgetown Journal of Asian Affairs, Online https://asianstudies.georgetown.edu/sites/asianstudies/files/files/upload/gjaa._2.2_osman.pdf

Østebø, T. (2009). Une économie salafie de la prière dans la région du Balé en Éthiopie. Afrique contemporaine, 231(3), 43. Https://doi.org/10.3917/afco.231.0043

Oualdi, M., Karoui, D. P.-E., & Verdeil, C. (2014). Les ondes de choc des révolutions arabes. Presses de l'Ifpo. Page_garde_thevenet – 2006_Thevenet.pdf. (s. D.). Consulté à l'adresse http://www.terrorisme.net/pdf/2006_Thevenet.pdf

Parent, B. R. Ellis J.O. (2016). The Future of Right-Wing Terrorism. Canada Working Paper Series No. 16-12 July 2016

Paulsen, Derek. (2007). Cyber Terrorism: Myths and Facts. Conference Papers – American Society of Criminology, 1.

Pauwels, Lieven, & Schils, Nele. (2016). Differential online exposure to extremist content and political violence: Testing the relative strength of social learning and competing perspectives. Terrorism and Political Violence, 28(1), 1-29.

Paz, Reuven. (2009). Reading Their Lips: The Credibility of Militant Jihadi Web Sites as 'Soft Power' in the War of the Minds Home-Grown Terrorism: Understanding and Addressing the Root Causes of Radicalization among Groups with an Immigrant Heritage in Europe (Vol. 60, pp. 114-126).

Pearson, Elizabeth. (2016). The Case of Roshonara Choudhry: Implications for Theory on Online Radicalization, DAESH Women, and the Gendered Jihad. Policy & Internet, 8(1), 5-33.

Penn, M. (2008). Public faces and private spaces: Islam in the Japanese context. Asia policy, 5(1), 89-104.

Peperhove, Roman. (2010). Islamist Websites: an Up-to-Date Snapshot from a German Point of View Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 153-163).

Pérouse de Montclos, M.-A. (2012). Boko Haram et le terrorisme islamiste au Nigeria: insurrection religieuse, contestation politique ou protestation sociale? (Boko Haram, Terrorism, and Islamism in Nigeria: A Religious Uprising, a Political Contest, or a Social Protest?). SSRN Electronic Journal. Https://doi.org/10.2139/ssrn.2282542

Perry, Barbara, & Olsson, Patrik. (2009). Cyberhate: the globalization of hate. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 185-199.

Perry, Barbara, & Olsson, Patrik. (2009). Cyberhate: the globalization of hate. Information & Communications Technology Law, 18(2), 185-199.

Peyry, Y.-M. (2016). Menaces cybernétiques: Le manuel du combattant. Artège.

Pick, T. M., Speckhard, A., & Jacuch, B. (2009). Home-grown terrorism understanding and addressing the root causes of radicalization among groups with an immigrant heritage in Europe. Amsterdam & Washington, D.C.: IOS Press.

Pickard, Victor W. (2006). United Yet Autonomous: Indymedia and the Struggle to Sustain a Radical Democratic Network. Media, Culture & Society, 28(3), 315-336.

Piorkowski, John, & Zhou, Lina. (2013). Content Feature Enrichment for Analyzing Trust Relationships in Web Forums. 2013 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 1486-1487.

Piper, Paul. (2008). Nets of Terror: Terrorist Activity on the Internet (English). Searcher (Medford, N.J), 16(10), 28-38.

Pisiou, D. (2012). Islamist radicalization in Europe: An occupational change process. London & New York: Routledge.

Pluchinsky, Dennis, & Roujansky, Jacques. (2007). The Migration of Terrorist Tactics, Techniques, and Creativity (TTC) (English). REE. Revue de l'électricite et de l'électronique (10).

Pollock, David, Wenig, Gilad, Raydan, Noam, & Barnhard, Gavi. (2015). Fikra Forum Online Engagement between the West and the Middle East. Soundings, 98(4), 501-514.

Pollock, E. T. (2006). Understanding and contextualising racial hatred on the internet: a study of newsgroups and websites. (U233179 Ph.D.), Nottingham Trent University (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/301693572?accountid=10246

Pooley, Elizabeth. (2015). A New Sisterhood: The Allure of DAESH in Syria For Young Muslim Women in the UK. (1587471 M.S.), Arizona State University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1680789280?accountid=10246

Post, Jerrold M. (2015). Terrorism and right-wing extremism: The changing face of terrorism and political violence in the 21st century: The virtual community of hatred. International Journal of Group Psychotherapy, 65(2), 243-271.

Post, Jerrold M., McGinnis, Cody, & Moody, Kristen. (2014). The changing face of terrorism in the 21st century: The communications revolution and the virtual community of hatred. Behavioral Sciences & the Law, 32(3), 306-334.

Postmes, T., & Brunsting, S. (2002). Collective action in the age of the Internet mass communication and online mobilization. Social Science Computer Review, 20(3), 290-301.

PPN Working Paper: Radicalization: the role of the internet, Institute for Strategic Dialogue, 2011

Pradal, F. (2012). Plongée dans l'Egypte rebelle; Suez entre salafisme et révolution. Le Monde Diplomatique.

Pratt, D. (2015). Reactive Co-Radicalization: Religious Extremism as Mutual Discontent. Journal for the Academic Study of Religion, 28(1).

Prentice, Sheryl, Taylor, Paul J., Rayson, Paul, Hoskins, Andrew, & O'Loughlin, Ben. (2011). Analyzing the semantic content and persuasive composition of extremist media: A case study of texts produced during the Gaza conflict. Information Systems Frontiers, 13(1), 61-73.

Preventing and responding to hate crimes; A resource guide for NGOs in the OSCE region, OSCE, (2009) http://www.osce.org/odihr/39821?download=true

Pu Shi Institute for Social Science http://www.pacilution.com/

Puchot, P., & Collectif. (2016). Les Frères musulmans et le pouvoir. Galaade Editions.

Qabalane M. (janvier 2015), « La montée de l'organisation de l'Etat et les transformations du système régional au Machreq », Politiques arabes, (12)

Qarami A. (juillet 2015), « Le djihad des femmes: le terrorisme au féminin » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/38116

Qian Lu. (2015). Daesh青少年招募机制探析. (Doctoral dissertation, 云南大学).

Qin, J. L., Zhou, Y. L., Reid, E., Lai, G. P., & Chen, H. C. (2006). Unraveling international terrorist groups' exploitation of the web: Technical sophistication, media richness, and web interactivity Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3917, pp. 4-15).

Qosay H. (2016), La problématique de la radicalization religieuse dans la pensée arabe contemporaine, Le Caire, Éditions de l'Institut Arabe pour les recherches et les études. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alecso.org/site/2016-02-02-13-47-43/726-2016-03-15-19-24-48.html

Quebec's Call of Action. (2016). https://www.agora-inscription.ca/UNESCO-QUEBEC/en/qc-call

Quayle, Ethel, & Taylor, Max. (2011). Social networking as a nexus for engagement and exploitation of young people. Information Security Technical Report, 16(2), 44-50.

Qureshi, Pir Abdul Rasool, Memon, Nasrullah, & Wiil, Uffe Kock. (2010). EWaS: Novel Approach for Generating Early Warnings to Prevent Terrorist Attacks. 2010 Second International Conference on Computer Engineering and Applications: Iccea 2010, Proceedings, Vol 2, 410-414.

Rabat Plan of Action on the prohibition of advocacy of national, racial or religious hatred that constitutes incitement to discrimination, hostility or violence, Conclusions and recommendations emanating from the four regional expert workshops organised by OHCHR, 2011, and adopted by experts in Rabat, Morocco on 5 October 2012.http://www.ohchr.org/Documents/Issues/Opinion/SeminarRabat/Rabat_draft_outcome.pdf

Rachid T. (décembre 2015), « Daesh recule sur le front médiatique » (article d'opinion), Al-Yaum. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.alyaum.com/article/4106477

Racine, J.-L. (2000). Le Pakistan après le coup d'État militaire: Sortie de crise, enlisement ou radicalization? Critique internationale, 7(1), 22–29. Https://doi.org/10.3406/criti.2000.1556

Raflik, J. (2016). Terrorisme et mondialisation. Approches historiques. Editions Gallimard.

Ramakrishna K. (2011). The four mutations of violent muslim extremism in Southeast Asia: Some implications for a cognitive immunization policy. Asia Policy. 12(12): 13-19.

Ramalingam, Vidhya and Henry Tuck, 'The Need for Exit Programmes; Why deradicalization and disengagement matters in the UK's approach to far-right violence,' Institute for Strategic Dialogue, September 2014

Ramsay, Gilbert. (2011). Consuming the jihad: An enquiry into the subculture of Internet jihadism. (U606145 Ph.D.), University of St. Andrews (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1512394871?accountid=10246

Rangoun, B. P. Envoyé spécial à. (2014). L'ultra bonze. Le Temps.

Rawaa, Augé. (2016). Daesh et les médias : coulisses d'un mariage forcé. Hérodote, 2016/1 (N° 160-161)

Ray, B. & Marsh, G.E; (2001). Recruitment by Extremist Groups on the Internet. First Monday, volume 6, number 2 (February 2001), URL: http://firstmonday.org/issues/issue6_2/ray/index.html

Rebolledo Leyton, R. (2005). La crDaesh económica de 1967 en el contexto de la ruptura del sistema democrático. Universum (Talca), 20(1), 124–139. Https://doi.org/10.4067/S0718-23762005000100009

Reding, Randal G. (2016). Terror's tangled web: Assessing the Islamic State's cyber recruiting strategies in Western countries. (10107639 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1791981453?accountid=10246

Regional Compendium of Counter-Narratives, Australian Government (2015) https://www.ministerjustice.gov.au/Mediareleases/Pages/2015/ThirdQuarter/30-September-2015-Australia-first-efforts-to-counter-violent- extremism.aspx

Reicher, S. D., & Haslam, S. A. (2016). Fueling extremes. Scientific American Mind, 27(3), 34-39.

Reicher, S. D., Spears, R., & Postmes, T. (1995). A social identity model of deindividuation phenomena. European review of social psychology, 6(1), 161-198.

Reid, E., Qin, J. L., Zhou, Y. L., Lai, G. P., Sageman, M., Weimann, G., & Chen, H. C. (2005). Collecting and analyzing the presence of terrorists on the web: A case study of Jihad Websites Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3495, pp. 402-411).

Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchen. (2007). Internet-Savvy U.S. And Middle Eastern Extremist Groups. Mobilization: An International Journal, 12(2), 177-192.

Reid, Edna, & Hsinchun, Chen. (2006). Extremist social movement groups and their online digital libraries (English). Information outlook, 10(6).

Reis, B. C. (2011). Os Estados Unidos e Osama bin Laden uma década depois: a derrota da Al-Qaida e o fim da unipolaridade? Relações Internacionais (R:I), (31), 33–44.

Report, Online terror + hate: the first decade of hate,' Simon Wiesenthal Center, Snider Social Action Institute, 2008

Rey, P. (2015). Qui est daech ?: Comprendre le nouveau terrorisme. Philippe Rey.

Reynolds, Teddy. (2015). Pulling back the curtain: an examination of the english defence league and their use of facebook. (10084492 Ph.D.), University of St. Andrews (United Kingdom), Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1779253412?accountid=10246

Rioux, C. (2004). Antiterrorisme. L'Actualité, 29(8), 18.

Riva, G., Mantovani, F., Capideville, C. S., Preziosa, A., Morganti, F., Villani, D., Gaggioni, A., Bottela, C. & Alcañiz, M. (2007). Affective interactions using virtual reality: the link between presence and emotions. CyberPsychology & Behavior, 10(1), 45-56.

Robinson, Rowena. (2004). Virtual Warfare: The Internet as the New Site for Global Religious Conflict. Asian Journal of Social Science, 32(2), 198-215. doi: 10.1163/1568531041705121

Roche, Y., & Jouve, B. (Éd.). (2006). Des flux et des territoires : vers un monde sans États ? Québec, Québec, Canada : Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Rogan, Hanna. (2007). Abu Reuter and the E-Jihad: Virtual Battlefronts from Iraq to the Horn of Africa. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 8(2), 89-96.

Rothenberger, Liane. (2012). Terrorist Groups: Using Internet and Social Media for Disseminating Ideas. New Tools for Promoting Political Change. Revista română de comunicare si relatii publice, 14(3), 7-23.

Roudinesco, E. (2014). L'islam sur le divan. Le Temps.

Rougier, B. (2004). L'islamisme face au retour de l'islam ? Vingtième Siècle. Revue d'histoire, (82), 103–118.

Rougier, B. (2004). Le Jihad au quotidien. Presses Universitaires de France.

Roy, O. (2002). L'islam mondialisé. Seuil.

Ruisheng Li. (2016). 塔吉克斯坦恐怖主义犯罪及其预防研究. 犯罪研究 (3).

Rumbough, Tim. (2003). Explosive information: How the internet can help terrorists (English). Journal of information ethics, 12(2), 16-30.

Ryan, Johnny. (2007). The four P-words of militant Islamist radicalization and recruitment: Persecution, precedent, piety, and perseverance. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 30(11), 985-1011.

Saada, J. (2009). Médias et Internet dans le monde arabe : Une opportunité pour Barack Obama ? Confluences Méditerranée, 69(2), 127. Https://doi.org/10.3917/come.069.0127

Sabetnia, Elahe, Poorgholami, Maryam, & Jalali, Mehrdad. (2012). Cybercrime Detection through Multilayer Perceptron Neural Network: Evaluate and Compare 2011 3rd International Conference on Computer Technology and Development (pp. 277-281).

Sabine, L. (2005). Les constitutions arabes et l'Islam. Presses de l'Université du Québec.

Sachan, Abhishek. (2012). Countering Terrorism through Dark Web Analysis 2012 Third International Conference on Computing Communication & Networking Technologies.

Sageman, M. (2004). Understanding terror networks. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press.

Sageman, Marc. (2008). A strategy for fighting international Islamist terrorists. Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, 618(1), 223-231.

Sakhi G.A. (dir., 2015), Le terrorisme. Le modèle de Daesh, Les Cahiers d'Al-Nahrain, (2). Consulté à l'adresse https://drive.google.com/file/d/0B0unzeP74kahNW5oQ1dTR1VqcFU/view

Sakurai, K. (2008). Muslims in contemporary Japan. Asia policy, 5(1), 69-87.

Salem, Arab, Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchun. (2006). Content analysis of jihadi extremist groups' videos Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3975, pp. 615-620).

Salem, Arab, Reid, Edna, & Chen, Hsinchun. (2008). Multimedia content coding and analysis: Unraveling the content of Jihadi extremist groups' videos. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 31(7), 605-626.

Salihu, Flurije. (2015). Assemblages of radicalism: The online recruitment practices of Islamist terrorists. (76), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2015-99191-096&site=ehost-live&scope=site Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Salihu, Flurije. Assemblages of Radicalism: The Online Recruitment Practices of Islamist Terrorists. (AAI3666750). Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1767331199?accountid=10246

Saltman, Erin Marie and Melanie Smith, 'Till Martyrdom Do Us Part' Gender and the DAESH Phenomenon' Institute for Strategic Dialogue, May 2015

Saniotis, Arthur. (2005). Re-Enchanting Terrorism: Jihadists as "Liminal Beings". Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 28(6), 533-545.

Scanlon, Jacob R., & Gerber, Matthew S. (2015). Forecasting Violent Extremist Cyber Recruitment. Ieee Transactions on Information Forensics and Security, 10(11), 2461-2470.

Schafer, Joseph A., Mullins, Christopher W., & Box, Stephanie. (2014). Awakenings: The Emergence of White Supremacist Ideologies. Deviant Behavior, 35(3), 173-196.

Schils N., Laffineur J. (2013). Comprendre et expliquer le rôle des réseaux sociaux dans la formation de l'extrémisme violent. Belgique : université de Gent et université catholique de Louvain, BELSPO.

Schmidle, Robert E. (2010). Positioning Theory and Terrorist Networks. Journal for the Theory of Social Behaviour, 40(1), 65-78.

Schmitz, Rachel M. (2016). Intersections of hate: Exploring the transecting dimensions of race, religion, gender, and family in Ku Klux Klan Web sites. Sociological Focus, 49(3), 200-214.

Schott, C. (2014). Les Cahiers de la sécurité et de la justice, ISSN 2427-1950. La radicalization violente. Paris, France : La documentation française.

Scott, G. Podder, S. (2015). Social Media, Recruitment, Allegiance and the Islamic State. http://www.terrorism-research.org/ http://www.terrorismanalysts.com/pt/index.php/pot/issue/view/53" \t "_parent

Seib, Philip. (2008). Terrorism and the Al Jazeera Effect. Conference Papers – International Studies Association, 1.

Selepak, Andrew. (2010). Skinhead Super Mario Brothers: An Examination of Racist and Violent Games on White Supremacist Web Sites. Journal of Criminal Justice & Popular Culture, 17(1), 1-47.

Semi, G. (2000). I nuovi musulmani. I convertiti all'islam. Archives de sciences sociales des religions, (110), 54–55.

Seniguer, H. (2013). Terrorisme(s) », islamisme(s) et violences politiques dans le monde musulman contemporain. Confluences Méditerranée, 85(2), 177. Https://doi.org/10.3917/come.085.0177

Seniguer, H. (2015). Communauté, « communautarisme » et islam en France : y a-t-il un « communautarisme » musulman ? Droit Social, (9), 664.

Serres Diane Et Cluzeau Anna. (s. D.). La Cybercriminalité nouveaux enjeux de la protection des données – Memoire Online. Consulté 17 septembre 2016, à l'adresse http://www.memoireonline.com/04/09/2033/m_La-Cybercriminalite-nouveaux-enjeux-de-la-protection-des-donnees3.html

Shah Mahmood, "Online social networks: The overt and covert communication channels for terrorists and beyond", Homeland Security (HST) 2012 IEEE Conference on Technologies for, pp. 574-579, 2012.

Shaikh, Mubin. (2015). Countering Violent Extremism (CVE) Online: An Anecdotal Case Study Related to Engaging DAESH Members and Sympathizers (from North America, Western Europe, and Australia) on Twitter. Soundings, 98(4), 478-487.

Shan W. & Ping X. J. (2014). Rising terrorism and China's new policy in Xinjiang. East Asian Policy, 06(4), 113-126.

Shavit, Uriya. (2006). Al-Qaeda's Saudi Origins. Middle East Quarterly, 13(4), 3-13.

Shkel, Tamara. (2008). The Provider Will Have to Answer. Statutes & Decisions: The Laws of the USSR & Its Successor States, 43(2), 84-86. doi: 10.2753/RSD1061-0014430217

Shorer-Zeltser, Marina, & Ben-Israel, Galit. (2007). Greater is our terror of the unknown the diasporic Internet networks and their inference with global security Eciw 2007: Proceedings of the 6th European Conference on Information Warfare and Security (pp. 253-262).

Sibianu, Daniela. (2010). Islamist Propaganda on the Internet. Terrorist Entities' Response to Alleged Anti-Muslim Western Actions Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 81-89).

Sidhu, Dawinder S. (2007). The chilling effect of government surveillance programs on the use of the internet by muslim-americans. University of Maryland Law Journal of Race, Religion, Gender & Class, 7(2), 375-393.

Silke, A. (Ed.). (2013). Prisons, terrorism and extremism: Critical issues in management, radicalization and reform. New York: Routledge.

Silke, Andrew. (2010). The Internet & Terrorist Radicalization: The Psychological Dimension Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 27-39).

Simi, Pete, & Futrell, Robert. (2006). Cyberculture and the endurance of white power activism. Journal of Political & Military Sociology, 34(1), 115-142.

Sivek, S. C. (2013). Packaging inspiration: Al-Qaeda's digital magazine Inspire in the self-radicalization process. International Journal of Communication, 7, 584-606

Skillicorn, D. B. (2012). Lessons from a Jihadi Corpus. 2012 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam), 874-878.

Soral, W., Bilewicz, M., & Winiewski, M. (2016). Exposure to hate speech increases prejudice through desensitization. Artykuł złożony do publikacji.

Sossie, A. (1990). Sellam (S.) Être musulman aujourd'hui. Archives de sciences sociales des religions, 72(1), 298–298.

Sounaye, A. (2012). Heirs of the Sheikh Izala and its Appropriation of Usman Dan Fodio in Niger. Cahiers d'études africaines, N 206-207(2), 427–447.

Spears, R., & Postmes, T. (2015). Group Identity, Social Influence, and Collective Action Online. The Handbook of the Psychology of Communication Technology, John Wiley & Sons, Oxford, 23-46.

Speckhard, Anne. (2009). The Militant Jihad in Europe: Fighting Home-grown Terrorism Home-Grown Terrorism: Understanding and Addressing the Root Causes of Radicalization among Groups with an Immigrant Heritage in Europe (Vol. 60, pp. 143-160).

Spinks, Brandon Todd. (2010). Assessing perceived credibility of Web sites in a terrorism context: The PFLP, Tamil Tigers, Hamas, and Hezbollah. (70), ProQuest Information & Learning, US. Retrieved from http://0-search.ebscohost.com.mercury.concordia.ca/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2010-99110-032&site=ehost-live&scope=site Available from EBSCOhost psyh database.

Spitaels, G. (2005). La triple insurrection islamiste. Luc Pire Editions.

Stan, Mariana, & Vladescu, Andrei. (2010). The Islamist Propaganda on Women and Children Web Sites Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 93-103).

Stan, Mariana. (2010). Islamic Terrorism in Europe Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 41-52).

Staw, B. M. (1976). Knee-deep in the big muddy: A study of escalating commitment to a chosen course of action. Organizational behavior and human performance, 16(1), 27-44.

Stekelenburg, Jacquelien. (2014). Going All the Way: Politicizing, Polarizing, and Radicalizing Identity Offline and Online. Sociology Compass, 8(5), 540-555.

Stener, C. (2015). Exposée: Djihad 4.0. Bod – Books on Demand.

Strachan, Anna Louise 'Interventions to counterhate speech', GSDRC Applied Research Services, 23 June 2014

Stremlau, N. (2016, mai 31). Mechachal – Final Report Released – The Programme in Comparative Media Law and Policy (PCMLP). Consulté 2 juin 2016, à l'adresse http://pcmlp. socleg.ox.ac.uk/2016/05/mechachal-final-report-released/

Sun, D. (2010). China and the global jihad network. Journal of the Middle East & Africa, 1(2), 196-207.

Sureka, Ashish, Kumaraguru, Ponnurangam, Goyal, Atul, & Chhabra, Sidharth. (2010). Mining You Tube to Discover Extremist Videos, Users and Hidden Communities Information Retrieval Technology (Vol. 6458, pp. 13-24).

Sutton, Mike, & Wright, Cecile. (2009). Finding the far right online: an exploratory study of white supremacist websites. Internet Journal of Criminology, 1-24.

Swann, W.J & Buhrmester, M. D. (2015). Identity Fusion. Psychological Science, 2015, Vol. 24(1) 52–57

Tang, L. (2013). 'The Politics of Flies: Mocking News in Chinese Cyberspace.' Chinese Journal of Communication, 6(4): 482–496.

Tateo, Luca. (2005). The Italian Extreme Right On-line Network: An Exploratory Study Using an Integrated Social Network Analysis and Content Analysis Approach. Journal of Computer-Mediated Communication, 10(2).

Tavernier, A. (2001). Isabelle Garcin-Marrou : Terrorisme, Médias et Démocratie. *Études de communication. Langages, information, médiations*, (24), 147–149.

Taylor, William D., Johnson, Genevieve, Ault, Michael K., Griffith, Jennifer A., Rozzell, Bobby, Connelly, Shane. Ness, Alisha M. (2015). Ideological group persuasion: A within-person study of how violence, interactivity, and credibility features infuence online persuasion. Computers in Human Behavior, 51, 448-460.

The Guardian. (2017). The myth of the 'lone wolf' terrorist – podcast The Guardian's Audio Long Reads https://audio.guim.co.uk/2017/04/18-52560-gdn. lr.170418.sb.myth-lone-wolf-terrorist.mp3

Thompson, R. L. (2011). Radicalization and the use of social media. Journal of Strategic Security, 4 (4).

Thomson, D. (2014). Les Français Jihadistes. Les Arènes.

Ting Liu. (2016). http://xueshu.baidu.com/s?wd=paperuri%3A(bd7e71e234e83229 d6d8dc5f4761dbf5)&filter=sc_long_sign&tn=SE_xueshusource_2kduw22v&sc_ vurl=http%3A%2F%2Fwww.cqvip.com%2FQK%2F83365X%2F201603%2F669515823. html&ie=utf-8&sc_us=1465702900128083925" \h陕西社会主义学院学报，2016(3).

Ting Liu. (2016). 社交媒体恐怖主义及招募策略探析. 中央社会主义学院学报 (4), 107-111.

Tomomi, Yamaguchi. (2013). Xenophobia in Action: Ultranationalism, Hate Speech, and the Internet in Japan. Radical History Review(117), 98-118. doi: 10.1215/01636545-2210617

Top Gustavson, Aleta. (2012). Ideological resource sharing on the Internet and the patterning of networks in the White Supremacist/Separatist Movement. (3552944 Ph.D.), Southern Illinois University at Carbondale, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/ docview/1312531269?accountid=10246

Torres Soriano, Manuel R. (2011). The Road to Media Jihad: The Propaganda Actions of Al Qaeda in the Islamic Maghreb. Terrorism & Political Violence, 23(1), 72-88

Torres Soriano, Manuel R. (2012). Between the Pen and the Sword: The Global Islamic Media Front in the West. Terrorism & Political Violence, 24(5), 769-786.

Torres-Soriano, Manuel Ricardo. (2013). The Dynamics of the Creation, Evolution, and Disappearance of Terrorist Internet Forums. International Journal of Conflict and Violence, 7(1).

Tournier, V. (2011). Modalités et spécificités de la socialisation des jeunes musulmans en France Résultats d'une enquête grenobloise. Revue française de sociologie, 52(2), 311–352.

Trévidic, M. (2013). Terroristes. JC Lattès.

Trujillo, H. M., Mañas, F. M., & González-Cabrera, J. (2010). Assessment the explanatory power of clandestine social networks graphs with ucinet and netdraw. Universitas Psychologica, 9(1), 67–78.

Tsfati, Y., & Weimann, G. (2002). www. terrorism. com: Terror on the Internet. Studies in Conflict and Terrorism, 25(5), 317-332.

Tsfati, Yariv, & Weimann, Gabriel. (2002). www.terrorism.com: Terror on the Internet. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 25(5), 317-332.

Tuckwood, Christopher and Christine Mutisya, 'Information and Communications Technology in Peacebuilding: Lessons from Kenya's Tana Delta,' Conflict Trends, ACCORD, 2014

Turner-Graham, Emily. (2014). 'Breivik is my Hero': the Dystopian World of Extreme Right Youth on the Internet. Australian Journal of Politics & History, 60(3), 416-430.

Tuttle, Michelle. (2016). Terrorism recruitment using internet marketing. (10108078 M.S.), Utica College, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1793408099?accountid=10246

Umar, Mohammed Sani & Mustapha, Abdul Raufu (2015) Policy Brief: Understanding the complex causes and processes of radicalization. Development, Research and Projects Centre, Abuja: Office of the National Security Adviser of the Federal Republic of Nigeria, pp. 1-12.

UNESCO (2016). *UNESCO's first Teacher's Guide on the Prevention of Violent Extremism.* http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0024/002446/244676e.pdf

UNESCO Empowering Youth to Build Peace Conference (2015). http://en.unesco.org/sites/default/files/youth_and_internet_brochure_en.pdf

UNESCO Lebanon Conference (2017). Final Statement. https://en.unesco.org/sites/default/files/beirut_statement_en.pdf

UNESCO Resolution adopted by the General Assembly on 3 December 2015, 70/20. Follow-up to the Declaration and Programme of Action on a Culture of Peace. http://undocs.org/A/RES/70/20

Valeri, M. (2014). « J'ai respiré l'air de la liberté. » La légitimation autoritaire au Bahreïn et en Oman à l'épreuve du « printemps arabe ». Critique internationale, (61), 107-126.

Van Buuren, Jelle, & de Graaf, Beatrice. (2014). Hatred of the system: Menacing loners and autonomous cells in The Netherlands. Terrorism and Political Violence, 26(1), 156-184.

Van Eerten, J. J., Doosje, B., Konijn, E., De Graaf, B., & De Goede, M. (in press, 2017), How to prevent radicalization or stimulate de-radicalization? An evaluation of counter-narrative programs using social media. Report commissioned by Ministry of Security and Justice.

Van San, Marion, Sieckelinck, Stijn, & de Winter, Micha. (2013). Ideals Adrift: An Educational Approach to Radicalization. Ethics and Education, 8(3), 276-289.

Varin, D. (2015). Boko Haram and the War on Terror. Praeger

Veerasamy, Namosha, & Grobler, Marthie. (2011). Terrorist use of the Internet: Exploitation and Support Through ICT Infrastructure. Proceedings of the 6th International Conference on Information Warfare and Security, 260-267.

Veldhuis, T., & Staun, J. (2009). Islamist radicalization: A root cause model. Den Haag: Netherlands Institute of International Relations Clingendael.

Vergani, M. (2014). Neo-jihadist prosumers and Al Qaeda single narrative: The case study of Giuliano Delnevo. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 37(7), 604-617. http://dx.doi.org/10.108 0/1057610X.2014.913122

Vergani, Matteo. (2014). Neojihadism and Muslim-Christian Relations in the Mindanao Resistance Movement: A Study of Facebook Digital Narratives. Islam & Christian-Muslim Relations, 25(3), 357-372.

Vertigans, Stephen, & Sutton, Philip. (2001). Back to the Future: 'Islamic Terrorism' and Interpretations of Past and Present. Sociological Research Online, 6(3).

Vignolle, F., & Ahmed-chaouch, A. (2014). La France du Djihad. Editions Du Moment.

von Behr, Ines, Anaïs Reding, Charlie Edwards and Luke Gribbon, Radicalization in the Digital Era; the use of the Internet in 15 case of terrorism and extremism, RAND Corporation Europe, 2013

Von Knop, Katharina. (2007). Hypermedia Seduction for Terrorist Recruiting. Conference Papers -- International Studies Association, 1.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2013). Tracking On-line Radicalization Using Investigative Data Mining. 2013 National Conference on Communications (Ncc).

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2015). An Approach for Dynamic Identification of Online Radicalization in Social Networks. Cybernetics & Systems, 46(8), 641-665.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2015). Measuring Radicalization in Online Social Networks Using Markov Chains. Journal of Applied Security Research, 10(1), 23-47.

Wadhwa, Pooja, & Bhatia, M. P. S. (2016). New Metrics for Dynamic Analysis of Online Radicalization. Journal of Applied Security Research, 11(2), 166-184.

Wahid M. (décembre 2015), « La guerre de l'image : lecture des messages médiatiques de Daesh » (article semi-académique), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies.

Walker, Clive, & Conway, Maura. (2015). Online terrorism and online laws. Dynamics of Asymmetric Conflict, 8(2), 156-175.

Wang, G. (2012). An analysis of cyber-terrorism under the international relations theory. Journal of Chongqing Jiaotong University, 122(15).

Wang, X. (2016). Cyber-terrorism and cyber-security cooperation under the one belt and one road initiative. Global Review.

Warner, Benjamin R. (2010). Segmenting the Electorate: The Effects of Exposure to Political Extremism Online. Communication Studies, 61(4), 430-444.

Warren, M. J. (1998). Cyber terrorism (p. 429-438). Présenté à SEC '98 : international conference on information security. Consulté à l'adresse http://cat.inist.fr/?Amodele=affichen&cpsidt=1810385

Watts, Meredith W. (2001). Aggressive Youth Cultures and Hate Crime: Skinheads and Xenophobic Youth in Germany. American Behavioral Scientist, 45(4), 600.

Wei Wu. (2009). 简述中亚地区面临的恐怖主义威胁. 青年科学 (3).

Wei, Wei, Joseph, Kenneth, Liu, Huan, & Carley, Kathleen M. (2015). The Fragility of Twitter Social Networks Against Suspended Users. Proceedings of the 2015 Ieee/Acm International Conference on Advances in Social Networks Analysis and Mining (Asonam 2015), 9-16.

Weimann, G. (2005). The theater of terror: The psychology of terrorism and the mass media. Journal of aggression, maltreatment & trauma, 9(3-4), 379-390.

Weimann, G. (2006). Terrorist dot com: Using the internet for terrorist recruitment and mobilization. The making of a terrorist, 1, 53-65.

Weimann, G. (2008). The psychology of mass-mediated terrorism. American Behavioral Scientist, 52(1), 69-86.

Weimann, G. (2010). Terror on facebook, twitter, and youtube. The Brown Journal of World Affairs, 16(2), 45-54.

Weimann, Gabriel, & Von Knop, Katharina. (2008). Applying the notion of noise to countering online terrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 31(10), 883-902.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2004). Annual Meeting, Montreal, Canada. Terror on the Internet.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2008). The Psychology of Mass Mediated Terrorism. American Behavioral Scientist, 52(1), 69-86.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2010). Terror on Facebook, Twitter, and Youtube. Brown Journal of World Affairs, 16(2), 45-54.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2011). Cyber-fatwas and terrorism. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 34(10), 765-781.

Weimann, Gabriel. (2015). Terrorist Migration to Social Media. Georgetown Journal of International Affairs, 16(1), 180-187.

Weisburd, A. Aaron. (2010). Jihadis Online: Concepts and Frameworks for Online Counter-Terrorism Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 197-210).

Weitzman, Mark. (2010). Antisemitism and Terrorism on the Electronic Highway Terrorism and the Internet: Threats – Target Groups – Deradicalization Strategies (Vol. 67, pp. 7-24).

Wendling, C., J. Radisch and S. Jacobzone (2013), "The Use of Social Media in Risk and CrDaesh Communication", OECD, Working Papers on Public Governance, No. 24, OECDPublishing

West, Dondi, & Latham, Christina. (2010). The Extremist Edition of Social Networking: The Inevitable Marriage of Cyber Jihad and Web 2.0. Proceedings of the 5th International Conference on Information Warfare and Security, 523-531.

White, J. (2012). Virtual indoctrination and the digihad: The evolution of Al-Qaeda's media strategy. Small Wars Journal.

Wilner, A. S., & Dubouloz, C. (2011). Transformative radicalization: Applying learning theory to Islamist radicalization. Studies in Conflict & Terrorism, 34 (5), pp. 418-438.

Wilson, Samuel F., II. (2014). Terrorist Experts' Perceptions of how the Internet has Shaped International Terrorism. (3668962 Ph.D.), Walden University, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1648432400?accountid=10246

Winter, C. (2015). 'Documenting the Virtual Caliphate', Quilliam Foundation, October 2015, http://www.quilliaminternational.com/wp-content/uploads/2015/10/FINAL-documenting-the-virtual-caliphate.pdf

Winter C. (2015). Women of the Islamic State. A manifesto on women by the Al-Khanssaa Brigade. Quilliam Foundation, February 2015, https://www.quilliamfoundation.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/publications/free/women-of-the-islamic-state3.pdf

Wojcieszak, Magdalena Elzbieta. (2011). Computer-mediated false consensus: Radical online groups, social networks and news media. Mass Communication & Society, 14(4), 527-546.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2006). "Don't Talk to Me"- The Impact of Unanimous Online Groups and Offline Ties on Extremism. Conference Papers -- American Political Science Association, 1-36.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2008). False consensus goes online: Impact of ideologically homogeneous groups on false consensus. Public Opinion Quarterly, 72(4), 781-791.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2009). 'Carrying online participation offline',Mobilization by radical online groups and politically dissimilar offline ties. Journal of Communication, 59(3), 564-586.

Wojcieszak, Magdalena. (2010). 'Don't talk to me': Effects of ideologically homogeneous online groups and politically dissimilar offline ties on extremism. New Media & Society, 12(4), 637-655.

Womer, Sarah, & Bunker, Robert J. (2010). Surenos gangs and Mexican cartel use of social networking sites. Small Wars & Insurgencies, 21(1), 81-94.

Wong, Meghan A., Frank, Richard, & Allsup, Russell. (2015). The supremacy of online white supremacists, an analysis of online discussions by white supremacists. Information & Communications Technology Law, 24(1), 41-73.

Woodring, David. (2014). 21st Century Radicalization: The Role of the Internet User and Nonuser in Terrorist Outcomes. (1554468 M.A.), University of Arkansas, Ann Arbor. Retrieved from http://search.proquest.com/docview/1527109139?accountid=10246

Wright, Marie. (2008). Technology & terrorism: How the Internet facilitates radicalization. The Forensic Examiner, 17(4), 14-20.

Wu Y. G. (2002). 伊斯兰原教旨主义、宗教极端主义与国际恐怖主义辨析. 国外社会科学 (1), 14-20.

Wu Y. G. (2004). 宗教极端主义的成因与态势. 中国宗教 (2), 12-13.

Wybo, J., Gouttas, C., Freyssinet, É., & Lions, P. (2015). L'impact des réseaux sociaux dans la gestion des crises et le cybercrime. Sécurité et stratégie, 18(3), 37-43.

Xenos, M., A. Vromen, & B.D. Loader. (2014). The Great Equalizer? Patterns of Social Media Use and Youth Political Engagement in Three Advanced Democracies. Information, Communication & Society, 151–67

Xianwei Sun, Jinpeng Zhai. (2008). "东突"恐怖主义活动发展特点及防范打击对策. 中国人民公安大学学报(社会科学版), 24(4), 21-26.

Xiaojing Wo. (2016). 从源头切断恐怖主义的网络传播。中国社会科学报。

Xiaomei Liu. (2015). 刍议青少年暴恐犯罪新动态. 青少年犯罪问题 (6), 60-66.

Xinjuan Mao, Zhou Zhang, Shaojie Wang. (2016). "东突"分裂势力对新疆青少年渗透活动特点及其应对. 中国人民公安大学学报(社会科学版), 32(1), 42-47.

Xiuxiu Li. (2016). 社交媒体上的恐怖活动研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 华东政法大学).

Xu, Jennifer, Chen, Hsinchun, Zhou, Yilu, & Qin, Jialun. (2006). On the topology of the dark web of terrorist groups Intelligence and Security Informatics, Proceedings (Vol. 3975, pp. 367-376).

Yahmad H. (2015), Les salafistes djihadistes tunisiens, Tunis, Dar ad-Diwan.

Yang S. &Yongfeng Li. (2008). 中亚伊斯兰极端主义. 俄罗斯中亚东欧研究. (5), 62-70.

Yang, Christopher C., & Ng, Tobun D. (2008). Analyzing content development and visualizing social interactions in web forum Isi 2008: 2008 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 25-30).

Yang, Christopher C., & Ng, Tobun D. (2009). Web Opinions Analysis with Scalable Distance-Based Clustering Isi: 2009 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 65-70).

Yang, S., Jiang, H., & Wang, H. (2014). The activities of "jihadist salafi" and its influence on Central Asia. Contemporary International Relations, 24(5), 96-113.

Yanhong Jiang. (2005). 网络对青少年心理的影响及对策. 希望月报 (18).

Yassin A. (juillet 2015), « Lutter contre le terrorisme : le rôle des médias égyptiens » (étude), Le Caire, Arab Center for Research & Studies. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.acrseg.org/39211

Yingjie Wei. (2008). 东突势力与中亚伊斯兰极端势力比较研究. (Doctoral dissertation, 兰州大学).

Yong, P. I. (2004). Research on cyber-terrorism crime & its control method. Wuhan University Journal.

Yu, Y. (1993). The radicalization of china in the twentieth century.

Yuan Le, Boxu Yang. (2010). 网络极化现象研究——基于四个中文bbs论坛的内容分析. 青年研究 (2), 1-12.

Yuxiao Li, Shuya Zhou. (2014). 印度极左翼恐怖主义研究. 青年科学月刊 (8), 197-197.

Zaiqi Liu. (2006). 中亚伊斯兰恐怖主义问题探析. 求索 (6), 103-105.

Zaman, R., & Mohammadi, A. A. (2014). Trends in Student Radicalization across University Campuses in Afghanistan. Afghan Institute for Strategic Studies.

Zanasi, A., & Artioli, M. (2009). Text and video mining solutions to national security intelligence problems Data Mining X: Data Mining, Protection, Detection and Other Security Technologies (Vol. 42, pp. 3-12).

Zanasi, Alessandro. (2009). Virtual Weapons for Real Wars: Text Mining for National Security Proceedings of the International Workshop on Computational Intelligence in Security for Information Systems 2008 (Vol. 53, pp. 53-60).

Zarrouk, M. (2011). Orígenes Del Terrorismo Global: Una Propuesta De AnálDaesh. Consulté à l'adresse http://www.redalyc.org/articulo.oa?Id=92722560001

Zaydane A. (janvier 2015), « L'avenir de l'Organisation de l'Etat en Afghanistan et au Pakistan » (rapport), Doha, Al-Jazeera Center for Studies.

Zeghal, M. (2002). Les usages du savoir et de la violence : quelques réflexions autour du 11 septembre. Politique étrangère, 67(1), 21–38. Https://doi.org/10.3406/polit.2002.5153

Zhang, Yulei, Zeng, Shuo, Fan, Li, Dang, Yan, Larson, Catherine A., & Chen, Hsinchun. (2009). Dark Web Forums Portal: Searching and Analyzing Jihadist Forums Isi: 2009 Ieee International Conference on Intelligence and Security Informatics (pp. 71-76).

Zhao T. (2010). Social cohesion and Islamic radicalization: Implications from the Uighur insurgency. Journal of Strategic Security.

Zhenpeng Liu. (2011). 新疆恐怖活动犯罪的特点与控制措施. (Doctoral dissertation, 吉林大).

Zhi-Gang, Y. U., & Guo, Z. L. (2015). Cyberterrorism crimes and responses from laws in China: analysis and reflection based on 100 random cases. Journal of Henan University.

Ziqing Lin. (2015). 盘点：东突在中国的15次重大恐怖袭击. 新浪历史。

Zünd, C. (2016). Comment préparer un acte terroriste depuis la Suisse via Skype et Facebook. Le Temps.

Does social media lead vulnerable individuals to resort to violence? Many people believe it does. And they respond with online censorship, surveillance and counter-speech. But what do we really know about the Internet as a cause, and what do we know about the impact of these reactions?

All over the world, governments and Internet companies are making decisions on the basis of assumptions about the causes and remedies to violent attacks. The challenge is for analysis and responses to be firmly grounded. The need is for policy constructed on the basis of facts and evidence, and not founded on hunches or driven by panic and fearmongering.

It is in this context that UNESCO has commissioned the study titled Youth and Violent Extremism on Social Media. This work provides a global mapping of research (mainly during 2012-2016) into the assumed roles played by social media in violent radicalization processes, especially as they affect youth and women.

UNESCO
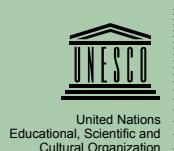
United Nations
Educational, Scientific and
Cultural Organization

**Communication
and Information
Sector**

IFAP
Information for All
Programme

9 789231 002458